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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 1, 1910.

The Week.

All the glowing predictions of important Republican enactments during the coming short session of Congress are cruelly shattered by Speaker Cannon, who is now in Washington. Uncle Joe is not lacking in sympathy with the proposed legislation, but sets his experience against other men's hopes. "It has been my experience," he placidly remarks, "that when a party has been beaten at the polls, it has been unable to enact such legislation at the ensuing short session of Congress." In Mr. Cannon we evidently have a case where old experience doth attain to something of prophetic strain. And in this instance he is in line with other seasoned prophets like Congressman Mann. What they have in mind is not so much unwillingness as impossibility. In the short session, the passing of the necessary appropriation bills takes up so much of the time that any other legislation has to be enacted virtually by consent. Especially in the Senate, the rules permit any two or three determined men to kill for the session any measure to which they are resolutely opposed. Hence we may as well resign ourselves to the prospect of a session legislatively barren.

Of the strength of the sentiment in favor of Edward M. Shepard's election as United States Senator from New York, there can be no manner of doubt. The remarkable thing about the many expressions of opinion that have appeared is the simple statement of his manifest superiority, in point of qualification for the office, to any other candidate that can be named. This, it is felt on all hands, will hardly be disputed. Mayor Gaynor's words were: "He is the man above all others to represent New York State at Washington." The same sentiment is expressed, in varying forms, and with or without specification of detailed reasons, by one representative man and representative newspaper after another. Commenting on the Brooklyn *Eagle's* remark that "more Senatorial qualifications centre in him than in any other member of the party who is now proposed for the office," the Syracuse *Herald* says: "The press of this State, with very few exceptions, will cordially subscribe to this estimate of Edward M. Shepard." And this up-State newspaper goes on to argue against giving any weight to the consideration that Mr. Shepard's election would make both the Senators residents of New York city, pointing out that the fact that Roscoe Conkling was a resident of the little city of Utica did not prevent a Democratic Legislature from electing Francis Kernan, of the same place, as his colleague.

The anti-Lodge press in Massachusetts is concerned lest the Senator, imitating Speaker Cannon, obtain his ends by summoning Democratic assistance. The Boston *Herald*, which is friendly or neutral, declares that Mr. Lodge "seems confident of enough support from the Democratic side of the Legislature to offset any possible Republican insurgency." "The answer of Republican progressives to this threat," says the Boston *Common*, "should be a flat refusal to go near the caucus." The caucus surely seems unnecessary to bind Republicans already committed to Lodge, and those opposed to him are, it is to be hoped, of sufficient backbone to refuse to enter the caucus or be bound by it. As the Boston *Common* says, in this case the caucus is "a device of machine politicians to fetter personal conviction." Altogether, Mr. Lodge's situation is one of growing interest. Arrayed against him are all the Republican progressives in Massachusetts, the men who sympathize with Cummins, Beveridge, La Follette, and their wing of the party in the nation. Yet their chief spokesman is to be the Democratic Governor-elect, since no Republican of any prominence has dared to come out openly against Senator Lodge.

Pathetic despair over the failure of popular government has suddenly darkened the sky of a few newspapers hitherto noted for cheerfulness. Thus the Indianapolis *Star*:

> It is impossible to derive any reassurance from at least one aspect of current affairs, and that is the ominous discouragement of modest merit in public life.

This conclusion sets one searching for the premises, which, in the editorial quoted from, are so far away that one finds himself almost back at its beginning before he comes upon them. But they are well worth the trouble of discovering. Sometimes, it seems, you can get the attention of the people to a fight over organized privilege, "but often in a critical emergency they will fail." For example:

> In the recent election, two champions of the square deal were beaten—Roosevelt and Beveridge.

So there we have the new synonyms for "modest merit."

The attempt of the Baltimore City Council to segregate the negroes of that municipality by prescribing zones within which they may live is so obviously doomed to defeat in the courts as to be hardly worth discussing. It is so conspicuously an interference with the constitutional guarantees, and is so fundamental a blow at the right to hold property, that no honest court could for a moment sustain it. To parallel it, one must recall the Pale in Russia and the mediæval attempts to prescribe residence districts for each and every guild or class of citizens.

> SAN FRANCISCO, November 23.—The Court of Appeals of the First District sustained to-day the conviction of Abraham Ruef, and denied him a new trial. Ruef had been sentenced to fourteen years' imprisonment and was at liberty on bail.
>
> Ruef's attorneys will be allowed forty days in which to prepare an appeal to the State Supreme Court.

And if at the end of the forty days, and at the end of the argument before the State Supreme Court, and after that court has taken due time to consider the various metaphysical subtleties that may be interposed between Ruef's crimes and his punishment—if, after all this, Ruef shall finally, years after his prosecution began, come down to serving a term of imprisonment, how much will be left of the moral effect that would have been produced had this notoriously corrupt politician been promptly visited with the penalty of his crimes when they were first brought home to him? That is what would have happened under the business-like and efficient methods of the English courts. Is there

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a single human being in this country who imagines that these delays and uncertainties, these gigantic struggles that are necessary to compass the punishment of a single rascal, have any relation to the accurate ascertainment of the truth?

Under analysis, Mr. James J. Hill's somewhat gloomy forecast of the industrial situation resolves itself into the declaration that the country is likely, next year, to proceed at a slackened pace in construction and expansion. But we imagine that the majority of observant people had reached the same conclusion before reading Mr. Hill's St Paul interview. There were numerous reasons for such expectations. One arose from the knowledge of all experienced men that what Wall Street calls "boom times" never continue uninterruptedly; that it is the habit of all industrial communities, and of the United States especially, to move forward, in a sense, by fits and starts—in other words, to overdo the expansion so far in one year or series of years that a subsequent period of relaxation is inevitable while the country is growing up to the rapidly expanded facilities, and is liquidating the debt contracted to introduce them. Another and more immediate reason for belief in slackening activity lay in the feeling of thoughtful business men that there was something unreal and unsubstantial in the "boom" which followed so swiftly on the heels of 1907. All other great panics in our history have been followed by a season of much more thorough rest and recuperation.

The internal revenue figures for the fiscal year ended June 30, with their showing of a great increase in the manufacture of liquors, are doubly curious, as not only coming in the face of the prohibition and local option movement, but also as contrasting with the extraordinary decline in the consumption of liquor in the United Kingdom which has been reported in recent British official figures. However, the figures do not have quite the significance that may at first sight be attached to them. The amount of distilled spirits, for example, is stated as 163,000,000 gallons, being "30,000,000 gallons more than the year before," which seems to show an astonishing growth of the use of spirits; but if we look further back into the figures we get a very important modification of our conclusions. For the fiscal year 1909 was virtually even with 1908, when the amount was 134,000,000 gallons; and the preceding year, 1907, gave the vastly greater total of 175,000,000 gallons. So the fact is that the prohibition agitation caused a very great drop in the production of distilled spirits, and what happened in the last fiscal year was only a recovery from that drop; even so, the amount was 12,000,000 gallons less than it had been three years ago.

There is one point raised in the Government's bill of complaint against the Sugar Trust upon which it is devoutly to be wished that the Supreme Court may find it in its heart to lay down the law in broad and illuminating language. There is probably no question connected with anti-monopoly legislation that touches the interests both of consumers and of independent producers, in all fields, more nearly than that relating to exclusive dealing under compulsion. The Government's complaint in the Sugar Trust case charges that "by using their great power they [the defendants] have successfully demanded that brokers and other intermediaries should handle their products alone, and have forced them to treat rival products unfairly and unlawfully, and for a long time they wrongfully induced members of various wholesale grocers' associations throughout the country to purchase and handle their sugar exclusively." It was largely with a view to enacting express prohibitions of such practices in place of the general and indefinite provisions of the Sherman Act that President Taft and others, not very long ago, advocated the repeal or modification of that act and the substitution in its stead of legislation of a more specific character.

A law suit of national importance has been begun in Ohio against the county commissioners of Licking County. It has been brought under the Ohio Anti-Lynching law by the administrator of the estate of Carl Etherington, the detective of the Ohio Anti-Saloon League who was lynched by a mob in Licking County, because of his activities in procuring evidence against lawless saloons. Gov. Harmon promptly removed the Mayor of the town, in accordance with this same law. Now, the question of money damages has come up. There are those who have held for years past that under the common law actions would lie against negligent civil authorities who took possession of persons accused of crime and failed to protect them from the fury of Judge Lynch. The Ohio law directly makes the county liable, and this test case which will settle the constitutionality of the law will be watched all over the Union. Should it be upheld, it is bound to prove a great deterrent to mobs. It is all very well to hang or burn a man out of hand, but when you have to pay a high price for the afternoon's entertainment, it is apt to appear differently both to lynchers and complaisant city officials.

The death of George F. Seward removes a citizen of whom New York could well be proud. An insurance-company president who knew precisely what answer to give to grafters and political blackmailers, he was wherever he went a standing refutation of the stupid charge that all New York business men in high positions are there merely to subvert the liberties of the people or to make money illegally. But Mr. Seward was far more than a mere business man. He was a diplomat of experience, great skill, and wide vision. As consul, consul-general, and minister to Korea and China for nineteen years, Mr. Seward knew the East as did few Americans. And far from having any contempt for the Oriental, he brought back from China a profound respect for the Chinese and an ever-ready indignation at their bad treatment by his country and his countrymen.

The ghost of the Hilprecht controversy has risen again, with every indication, however, that this is to be the "positively farewell appearance." Professor Hilprecht has presented his resignation both as professor of Assyriology at the University of Pennsylvania and as curator of the Babylonian Section of the university's Archæological Museum. It only remains for the board of trustees to take action, and it is difficult to see how, acting in the best interests of the institution, they can do anything else but accept. The controversies in which Professor Hilprecht has been involved have for many years been a disturbing

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factor of a most serious character both within and without the University of Pennsylvania. He has divided the university into two camps. Outside of the university the cause of archæology has also been affected by the doubt and the confusion created in the public mind; and so on all sides a state of affairs has been engendered which ought to be brought to an end. The affairs of the University of Pennsylvania are about to be handed over to a new president, who appears to have the confidence and esteem of the faculty and the student body; and it is particularly important that the new administration should not be handicapped at the start.

Though the present attempts at revolution in Mexico—they can hardly be called more than attempts—came upon the world as a surprise, they have been long preparing, and their causes have not been hidden. As Diaz's power became more absolute, he used it more despotically. Though he had no real reason to fear political opposition, he would not brook it. Even free discussion got to be distasteful to him. Examples have been frequent and recent of his muzzling of editors and expulsion of candidates for even minor offices whom he did not approve. This plan of squatting on the safety-valve could not be persisted in for years, even in Mexico, without leading to an explosion. It seems to be the fact, also, that the very growth of industries and manufactures which has come about under the Diaz régime has furnished the means for a revolutionary propaganda. Workingmen cannot be assembled in great numbers without supplying a *nidus* for ideas opposed to tyrannical government. We have seen this to be true in Spain and Russia; we are now seeing it to be true in Mexico. That President Diaz is greatly perturbed by the uprising against him, the telegrams from Mexico assert, and it is easy to believe it. A serious revolution now would be not only an unhappy clouding of his closing years, but a severe impeachment of the wisdom and success of his rule. It is not to be seriously expected that he will change his methods. To a man of his mould, the lesson of the troubles will very probably seem to be that he has not made his policy of repression enough like iron.

Though it was only a mutiny, and not a revolution, of which the Brazilian navy gave an exhibition in the harbor of Rio de Janeiro, it is an apt illustration of the danger of such toys as Dreadnoughts in undisciplined and reckless hands. The mutineers submitted themselves to the Government, but with a formal guarantee of amnesty, so that they will not be dealt with as military law would require. That being so, they have gained a good part of their object, and will also have established a vicious precedent. Indeed, last week's performance was probably inspired by the memory of the events in 1893 when the warships terrorized the city, defied the Government, and tied up commerce for several weeks. There is now a new precedent for a third mutiny.

Ireland is as gallantly to the fore as usual in the English election. The Ulster Unionists are already highly resolving that they will never, never submit to laws enacted by an Irish Parliament, and will pay no penny of taxes levied by a Dublin government. This is their neat way of driving home their favorite argument that the Irish Nationalists are too lawless to be trusted. If it comes to flouting laws they do not like, Ulster Irishmen will not be behind their countrymen in the South of Ireland, and will not give a fig for consistency. As for the prominence given by the Tories to Redmond and his "American dollars," this will no doubt make the Irish leader stronger than ever, though it may turn the scale in some close elections in England. It is somewhat comic that the "cry" of resisting the break-up of the Union by the use of American money should have been started by an Irishman, Mr. Garvin. The lead of this Irish editor has been followed tumultuously by the most respectable Conservative newspapers, which are always ready to recognize Irish political genius when it is enlisted on their side. But all this fierce denunciation of the venality of the Irish Nationalists might prove awkward if it turned out that the Irish held the balance of power in the next Parliament. In that event, Mr. Balfour would be as ready to make a bargain with them as Lord Salisbury was, and the prophecy of Lord Charles Russell might be fulfilled: "On my word, I often think that we shall get Home Rule from the Tories."

A new physical feature in Russia is significant of a new economic fact. This is the farmhouse of the peasant who has availed himself of M. Stolypin's Land Act, and is seeking to establish himself, in the language of an English newspaper correspondent, as a yeoman freeholder. The wisdom and the success of the experiment are shown by the circumstance that, after four years of operation, there have been less than three per cent. of protests from the new farmers, and these not because of any desire to go back to the old commune, but only because some of their neighbors have procured better bargains than they have. Many of the clergy are said to be opposed to the new system, on the ground that the migration of families to isolated farmhouses will be detrimental to the church.

Japan has given due notice of her intention to terminate her commercial treaties which went into effect with most of the leading nations on July 17, 1899. They were to be in force for twelve years, subject to termination, at the end of that period, on a year's notification in advance. The treaty with the United States contained a clause which apparently entitles our Government to insist that the whole shall be in effect until July 17, 1912; but even so it is known that our State Department has already concerned itself with the negotiations for a new agreement. The existing treaties, soon to be abrogated, contain a stipulation of fixed rates of duty on 150 specified products, when imported into Japan; and it is partly in order to levy protective rates on these articles that the Japanese Government has sought a free hand. The move has evidently troubled Japan's faithful allies, the English, and a deputation of British merchants has waited upon the Foreign Secretary to ask that steps be taken to keep English exports to Japan upon their present favorable footing. Sir Edward Grey replied that Great Britain could do nothing to prevent Japan from enacting a protective tariff. This will, of course, be hailed by the British protectionists as proof that the policy of free trade robs the Government of power to bring protected countries to terms by retaliation. But there seems no good reason why, because British trade with Japan is to be injured going, it should also be injured coming.

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MR. KNAPP AND THE RAILWAYS.

Mr. Knapp, chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission, must have managed to instil a somewhat Delphic quality into his speech to the Railway Business Association last week. Thus, one of the newspaper headlines the next morning read: "Knapp Flouts Our Railroad Laws"; another, "For Railway Competition"; a third, "Fears Competition More Than Monopoly"; a fourth, "Head of Commission Favors Higher Rates." As a matter of fact, no one of these captions describes at all correctly the actual burden of Mr. Knapp's remarks, which derived such importance as they possess largely from the official position of the speaker and from the occasion on which he uttered them.

We must confess to a little doubt on our own part, however, as to the full scope intended by Mr. Knapp for some of his observations, and to a good deal of doubt regarding the propriety, under existing circumstances, of just such a public discussion by a member of the Interstate Commerce Commission. The questions on which the speaker touched, such as railway competition, railway combination, and railway revenue and dividends, are topics which largely underlie the rate controversy now pending before the Interstate Commerce Commission. Whether Mr. Knapp's views on these subjects were correct or not—and much of what he said was entirely sound—the uttering of them, *ex officio*, by the chairman of the Commission ignored the fact that the inquiry now pending is of a quasi-judicial character. The speech can hardly be called a fortunate precedent.

We also feel compelled to criticise Mr. Knapp's remarks for a certain obscurity in his dealing with some highly important questions, which may be explained, but would hardly be excused, by the fact that the speaker realized on what delicate ground he was treading. For instance, we find it somewhat difficult to understand what the Commissioner meant by "the system of unbridled competition which it is still our policy to enforce"—"a mistaken policy." If he was talking exclusively of the railways—the context seemed to indicate that he was—then we fail to see the basis for his statement. Enforcement by the Government of unbridled competition among the railways is about as far as we can imagine from a correct description of the present status; on the contrary, the whole crux of the present rate discussion lies in the fact, admitted by both sides, that competition has virtually ceased to exist in the function of railway rate-making, and that therefore restriction and supervision over the making of rates must be undertaken by the Government.

If, on the other hand, Mr. Knapp intended to set forth a view that competition is an obsolete means of progress in the field of industry at large, then he was taking upon his shoulders a pretty heavy burden of proof. We are quite aware that such a view has found wide acceptance, even in certain economic circles; but the argument, so far as it has been sanely and intelligently conducted, has in our judgment directed itself against what, in the earlier chapters of our industrial history, used to be known as "cut-throat competition." Even the more plausible of the arguments on that basis have encountered some difficulty in escaping the inference that monopoly, or if not monopoly then State ownership, would be the logical desideratum. But both these alternatives Mr. Knapp expressly rejected.

Exactly what Mr. Knapp means by the remark that "the error and futility of our efforts to make stationary rates I believe has been fully demonstrated," we find it difficult to understand. It is not conceivable that he applied this description to the power, newly granted to the Interstate Commerce Commission, of reviewing and in its judgment vetoing an advance in rates. That policy has never been asserted by the Government as a policy for stationary rates; and, in fact, the argument for a stationary price for anything that is sold has been made most persistently, not by the public authorities nor by the travelling and consuming public, but by an advocate so far removed from their position as the Chairman of the United States Steel Corporation. From his views on the policy of stationary rates, Mr. Knapp draws the conclusion that railway freight and passenger associations should be legally sanctioned. This is a conclusion at which very many thoughtful minds had already arrived; but scarcely, we imagine, through the process of deduction adopted by Mr. Knapp.

We have dwelt at some length on this speech, especially in its references to competition, because it seems to us to embody a good deal of the hasty and sweeping generalization which has of late become too familiar. All of us know the argument which begins with the assertion that "we have outgrown competition," and most of us, after listening awhile, have carried away the lurking suspicion that the presumption fairly launched the argument on the way to socialism. Mr. Knapp, for instance, correctly finds in old-time railway competition the root of the evils of discriminating rates, and therefore concludes that competition itself belongs to a bygone age. One might have wished for a word on what competition has done for railway service, and for Mr. Knapp's idea as to whether that service, at its best, would or would not have been achieved, and would or would not be likely to be perpetuated, without the stimulus of competition, and without the knowledge that unfit service would mean failure in the race, and consequent loss of that return on investments in the railway which Mr. Knapp would apparently somehow guarantee.

THE DISSOLUTION OF PARLIAMENT.

Events in England have marched with unexampled swiftness. Scarcely had we heard of the failure of the Conference when it was given us to understand that another general election was imminent; and now we have the actual dissolution of a Parliament not yet a year old, with writs issued, the voting to begin immediately, and the new House of Commons to be chosen before Christmas. Such speed is almost unprecedented, and the whole procedure finds no parallel in the Constitutional text-books. It is the more important, therefore, to give close heed to what the leaders of the two parties say about the political crisis.

Let us first look at the Conservative position. This was stated by Mr. Balfour in his speech at Nottingham, and again in his reply to the Prime Minister in the Commons, as also by Lord Lansdowne in his statement in the House of Lords. It is, in brief, that, in the first place, there is no Constitutional warrant or political necessity for the abrupt procedure of the Ministry; and, furthermore, that the end avowed—namely, a reconstitution of the House of Lords, and a readjustment of its relations to the House of Commons—could be reached by fair discussion and mutual concessions in the existing Parliament. There

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is undeniable force in the first point. The Government has not met with a defeat. No measure was pending on which it was desirable to take the opinion of the country. No Government bill had been rejected by the House of Lords. Here was a Parliament only ten months old, with an overwhelming coalition majority in the House of Commons; yet no business is attempted; no parley with the Opposition is sought; but a dissolution is rudely announced. On the other hand, if the object aimed at is to make over the House of Lords, here are the Lords themselves undertaking their own reform and passing the Rosebery resolutions, which, if not entirely satisfactory, at least furnish a basis for debate and for settlement within the Parliament. Under these circumstances, what could be more arbitrary, what more precipitate, than rushing into a general election on a stale register and at a time most disturbing to trade?

To this Conservative argument, which we have stated as strongly as possible, the Liberals make a vigorous reply. Mr. Asquith declares that he is facing, not forms, but realities. Technically, it may be true that the Ministry has not been blocked by the Lords, but, in actual fact, it has been. The veto resolutions which passed the Commons in April by large majorities, were certain of contemptuous rejection in the Lords. Mr. Balfour openly conceded this. Indeed, he made the admission, logically disastrous to his cause, that "an election could not be deferred for more than a relatively small number of weeks or months." That was on the safe assumption that the Lords would not agree to the plan of the Commons. Well, then, says Mr. Asquith, why delay the inevitable issue? The whole thing has got to be decided by the people, and they may as well do it at once as to wait. According to the implications of Mr. Balfour, there would have to be a general election every year—that is, every time the Lords threw out a Liberal measure. They threw out the budget last year, and were forced by the electors to accept it. If the Government should again send up the Education Act of 1906, or the Plural-Voting bill, they would throw them out again, and on each one force an appeal to the country. That sort of thing cannot go on. The general procedure behind particular bills must be fixed once for all. The Liberal party cannot tolerate the continuance of that condition of things in which, as Mr. Balfour once incautiously boasted, the Conservative party "would control, whether in power or whether in Opposition, the destinies of this great Empire."

This Liberal policy of Thorough is dialectically strong, beyond all question, but the doubt remains whether, in practical result, it will much advance matters. It is possible, though not probable, that Mr. Asquith will come back with such a greatly increased majority that the Lords will scuttle before him. But it is not at all likely that the country will give so clear a voice on the main question that the Government can proceed triumphantly to demand that the Lords shall accept the veto resolutions without altering a word. Even if they did, the infinitely difficult matters of detailed legislation would have to be threshed out in Parliament, and would almost infallibly lead to another Conference—or to another general election. Indeed, it is broadly hinted that what the King now hopes for, or even expects, is that the election will leave the balance of parties so little altered as to necessitate a second Conference which shall not fail like the first. In that event, all the throes of the general election would have done little but put the affair back where it was before.

At present, of course, Mr. Asquith is taking a high hand. He describes himself as going out to consult the will of the people, and declares that the Lords will have to submit themselves to it. This raises the question of the "guarantees" which he may have received from the King. On that point, he would not speak in the Commons, urging that the King must be kept out of party warfare. But Mr. Asquith's statement of last April is recalled, when he said, speaking of such a crisis as has since arisen, that a dissolution of Parliament would, "in no case," be resorted to, "except under such conditions as will secure that in the new Parliament the judgment of the people as expressed at the election will be carried into law." This is generally understood to mean a promise by the King to create enough Peers to force the veto resolutions through the House of Lords; and the inference is that Mr. Asquith has obtained such a pledge from King George. But that monarch may have agreed simply to use the influence of the Crown in other ways: by persuading the Lords to desist; or by insisting upon another Conference which shall not break up without ending the controversy. In any event, the country is facing the general election with many misgivings, in which such sober Liberals as Lord Courtney plainly share, not knowing what secure harbor lies beyond the troubled seas.

THE NEGRO AND THE UNIONS.

Mr. Gompers, in a telegram to the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, made haste to deny that in his recent speech before the Federation of Labor Convention he had said "anything derogatory to the negro race or proposed to read the negro out of the labor movement." As reported, he had conveyed the impression that he wanted all negroes eliminated from unions because we could not expect "a people with all their traditions tending to tear down, to understand the fundamental philosophy of human rights; this is not a theory but a condition with which we have to deal." Not unnaturally from Booker Washington down there have been protests. If the labor-union movement has any justification, it is because it intends or was originally intended to aid those classes least able to help themselves, the classes beset by ignorance and prejudice and exploited by greed and cunning. It is precisely for these reasons and the inability of the working women to vote that the movement to organize women workers in unions has been making headway in New York city.

If to become a philosopher first is essential to the acquirement of a union card, it is obvious that many cards would have to be revoked. Labor unions that draw the color-line or refuse admission to Italians or other nationalities give the lie to the union assertion that theirs is a movement for true economic equality and genuine democracy. But if Mr. Gompers denies that he attacked the negro race and wished to exclude them from the unions, there is nothing in his utterances at St. Louis or elsewhere which we have seen that indicates an earnest desire to enroll many negroes among his supporters or to give them a real welcome. He dwells upon the difficulties of handling the colored workers; he does not seem to declare that these are precisely the difficulties the union movement likes to

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grapple with and meet. As a matter of fact, his attitude reflects, in the main, that of the unions throughout the country. Few welcome the negro with open arms, though there are some that do so, notably in the mining districts of Alabama. Some, like the engineers' union on the Central of Georgia Railway, would confine him to the lowest grade of engine-labor, while others, particularly in the North, are sullenly indifferent, or admit only a few men of color, if any.

Take the situation in New York city. According to Miss Mary White Ovington, who has given years to investigation, there were, in 1906, one hundred and two trades or divisions of trades which have no negro members. This discrimination, Miss Ovington feels, is due to the fact that there are few skilled negroes in the labor market, and that the union, "endeavoring to maintain a high standard of living for its members, may decide for a time to adopt a policy of restriction of membership," by means of excessive entrance dues, or by admitting for a long time only the friends of the men already in the organization. Miss Ovington finds that, while this policy bears hardest upon the negro, the Jew suffers from it, and to a smaller degree the Italian. But both of the latter are, in New York, in so much larger numbers that the unions feel them to be more of a menace to the institution, and therefore are more ready to admit them. "This discrimination is primarily economic, not racial, but it is hard to determine where economic motive ends and race or caste discrimination begins." Men in plenty are debarred solely because of their color; have not the locomotive engineers put the word white into their constitution?

So far as the American Federation of Labor is concerned, it originally took the position that it would admit no union which discriminated in its charter against the colored man. But that high ground has been abandoned. In 1902, it recognized the legality of excluding negroes from local unions, central labor bodies, or federal labor unions; national unions which expressly exclude negroes are now affiliated with the Federation and, in 1902, the Stationary Engineers altered their by-laws so as to exclude negroes. At the Atlanta University conference on the negro artisan in 1902, a list was given of forty-four of the most important unions, several with a membership of over 30,000, which have not a single negro member. Obviously, in view of this drift in his organization, it is highly significant that while Mr. Gompers denies having advocated the *putting out* of negroes from unions, he does not deny having advocated their not being admitted.

To those who do not believe in the unionization of all laboring men, who, while admitting the benefits gained by organization, feel that there ought always to be a large body of free labor to offset the evils of the unions, this attitude of the Federation and its leader will give some satisfaction. Excluding the negroes means that there will be a steadily growing body of skilled and unskilled laborers available for those who wish to employ non-union labor. For Mr. Gompers and his workmen, in the long run, the proper policy is to admit negroes and to ask for them the education which, in many sections, is virtually denied them. But even should a reactionary policy of rigid exclusion prevail, it cannot keep the negro down industrially; it will doubtless handicap him in many sections, but the only people who can keep the negroes in an inferior economic and social position are the negroes themselves. A race that has risen so rapidly against such wonderful odds is to be held back by no organization of workingmen, however powerful.

NEW YORK IN THE CENSUS.

State after State tells the now familiar story of rapid urban growth and slow increase, or even decrease, in rural population. New York is no exception to the rule. The total population of the State, by the census of 1910, is 9,113,279, an increase of 1,844,385 above the figures of ten years ago. The rate of increase is 25.4 per cent. for the decade; a result the more striking in that it marks the fifth consecutive decade showing a percentage of increase greater than that of its predecessor. The Civil War decade, naturally enough, showed only 12.9 per cent. increase, which was by far the lowest in the history of the State; but 1870-80 gave only 16 per cent., and 1880-90 only 18 per cent. The decade preceding the one now closing showed an increase of 21.1 per cent., and now we have 25.4 per cent., which is on a par with the decade of 1850-60, and which has not been materially exceeded since the early years of our history. In 1820-30 the rate of increase was 39.8 per cent.; but since that time 27.5 per cent. is the highest rate recorded.

But while the State as a whole shows this rapid growth of population, there are no less than twenty-four out of its sixty-one counties which have either actually declined or been virtually stationary in numbers. There are fifteen counties that have less population now than they had ten years ago, and there are nine others in which the rate of increase in the decade has been less than 2 per cent. These are, of course, rural counties. And how largely the list of this class of counties would have to be increased if the urban population in counties mainly agricultural did not come to the rescue, only a careful examination could disclose. Of course, the later publications of the census, dealing with the occupations of the people, will give information bearing directly on the degree in which the farming population is failing to hold its own, either relatively or absolutely; but even without this, interesting conclusions might be drawn from a detailed examination of the data.

The causes of this drift of population so long familiar in New England—and in old England—are too deep-seated to encourage the expectation that any great change will take place, in the near future at all events. The most fundamental cause is the enormous extension and cheapening of facilities for transportation and communication. And this operates with two-fold efficacy, in that it affects both the economic and the more strictly human aspect of the situation with about equal force. On the one hand, we have the most fertile land, or the land most easily worked on a great scale, in any part of the country brought into direct competition with the land that may have been occupied and tilled a century ago, when the advantage of a hundred miles, or two or three hundred miles, in proximity to a market was decisive; such a thing as a special local market for staples can hardly be said to exist nowadays. And, on the other hand, the railway and the telegraph and the cheap magazine and the one-cent daily paper have made the idea of going to the city familiar to every farmer's boy, and placed the possibility of doing so within his easy reach. The

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forces making against the maintenance of the population of outlying farming districts are such as cannot be gainsaid.

There is one element in the case which perhaps has not received the attention to which it is entitled. In spite of all the talk that there has been in various quarters about the rich getting richer and the poor poorer, and about modern inventions and discoveries having done nothing to lighten the burdens of the working people, the fact is that the past half-century has witnessed an enormous rise in the material standard of living of the masses. Physical discomforts which were regarded as matters of course a generation or two ago, except for the favored few, are now thought of as almost intolerable hardships; and the long hours of unrelieved toil in the fields which the grandfathers of the young men of to-day looked upon as part of the order of nature offer anything but a satisfactory prospect to the minds of the youths of the present generation. There may be many a case in which, in spite of the competition of Iowa and Kansas, the farmer in central or western New York might make the two ends meet as his father or grandfather did, were he content to work as unremittingly as they did, and to get on with as little of the comforts and luxuries of life. In connection with this aspect of the matter, it is to be remembered that the rise in the prices of agricultural produce—a rise not merely absolute, but also relative in comparison with other things—is a very recent thing. If it should be maintained, it is by no means impossible that it will have a marked effect in encouraging the maintenance and growth of our rural population, a thing devoutly to be wished.

Both the New York and the Ohio census may serve as a reminder of the large share which the big States of the Union have in the composition of the House of Representatives. New York's share of the total population of the country has more than held its own; Ohio's has nearly done so. Like New York, Ohio shows a greater percentage of increase during this decade than in the preceding; the rate from 1900 to 1910 was 14.7 per cent., as against 13.2 per cent. from 1890 to 1900. The equal representation of the States in the United States Senate gives rise to some anomalies, and there may possibly lurk in it a certain amount of danger; at the time of the silver agitation, the fact that a little group of thinly settled Rocky Mountain States had a power in the Senate vastly disproportioned to their population was a real grievance. But on the whole, the arrangement works well enough. It is desirable, in a polity like ours, that something else should have weight besides a mere count of heads; the individuality of some of the small States has always been a source of national vitality, and it is well that their importance should be maintained at a point above that marked out by size of population alone. That there are evils, actual or potential, connected with the extreme disproportion that exists in some cases cannot be denied; but it is not likely that they will ever be very serious. In the House of Representatives, a few large and wealthy States have together a commanding position. Thus, in the present Congress, out of 391 members of the House, there fall to New York 39, to Pennsylvania 34, to Illinois 27, to Ohio 23, to Massachusetts 16; so that 139 members, or more than one-third of the whole membership of the House, come from these five States.

GOOD RECORD OF THE PHILIPPINE ASSEMBLY.

As throwing an important light upon the capacity of the Filipinos for self-government, we have seen nothing of late to compare in interest with the examination in the current *Political Science Review* of the recent extraordinary session of the Philippine Legislature. This article is from the pen of Mr. James A. Robertson, the librarian of the Philippines Library, and is written in an unbiassed and scientific spirit characteristic of the journal in which it appears. Mr. Robertson is an American familiar with American legislative customs and procedure. Yet he does not hesitate to declare that this special session of the Philippine Legislature, which met on March 28 last and adjourned on April 19, "marks an epoch in the history of the Philippine Islands." This statement, Mr. Robertson declares, "is no idle panegyric," but is based upon his personal attendance at many sessions and his acquaintance with various members of the Assembly. The session as a whole he declares to have been remarkable in these respects:

> For the discipline exercised by the Speaker; for the earnestness displayed by the Representatives in general; for their dignity of bearing; and for their freedom from jingoism; and, outwardly at least, from party passion—outwardly, I say, because considerable party passion and personal feeling did at times creep into committee and secret meetings. In general, it may be said that this Assembly in its quietness and dignity of action, has established a precedent that can well be taken as a form for future sessions.

That the Speaker's discipline was due to caciqueism, or bossism, Mr. Robertson admits to have been freely charged in Manila, and he thinks that there may be some truth in the charge, precisely as the warmest defenders of Speaker Cannon have admitted that he bosses the House, but declare that he bosses it well. The Philippine Cannon, Señor Osmena, is also charged with having been too subservient to the Philippine Commission which forms the upper house of the Legislature, and to the Governor-General; but the Assembly's refusal for a second time to pass the Government's irrigation bill (for which Mr. Forbes has just appealed anew to the October session) shows pretty plainly that the Assembly is not altogether dominated by the Palace. Of course, Mr. Robertson does not suggest that all the legislation proposed was wise or judicious; "sometimes, indeed, it bordered on the ridiculous." But of what American Legislature could this not be said? One humorist desired to put the famous Constabulary Band up at auction; and there was a movement in committee seriously to cripple the civil service; but the matter was straightened out when the bill came before the Assembly.

Coercion by party leaders and a sheepish cleaving to party lines were also to be observed in Manila. Much of the work was naturally done in committee, and here Mr. Robertson thinks there was a lack of smoothness as well as a tendency to waste time over details which he thinks will disappear as the legislators become more experienced. On the whole, however, the delegates were "men of relatively superior intelligence, alert, and anxious" for the welfare of the Philippines. Mr. Robertson was struck by the fact that, while elected to represent certain localities, the delegates were keenly conscious that they represented also the whole of the archipelago. There was considerable sectionalism, but the growth of a larger feeling of nationalism was quite apparent; as racial antagonism among the Filipinos dies out there will come "a feeling of solidarity and homogeneity."

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As for the parties, the Nacionalistas, under Speaker Osmena, supported the Government, although pledged to independence; the Progresistas, who espouse the Taft policy of making progress slowly toward independence, were the Opposition. Nothing reflects more credit upon both parties, in our observer's opinion, than their refusal to seat Dr. Dominador Gomez, the labor agitator with a prison record, whose case was, by a vote of 44 to 29, referred to a committee that brought in a remarkably clear and able report, absolutely disqualifying Dr. Gomez. All in all, seventy bills were reported and discussed, many of them passed, but some defeated. Agriculture and allied industries received especial consideration, and so did matters of sanitation. In accordance with the Governor-General's desire, a "calamity fund" for use in possible emergencies was established by the Assembly. The organic law of the city of Manila was amended so as to confer upon it the right to grant certain franchises; the period during which timber and stone may be taken from public lands without fees, when used for necessary fuel or building purposes and not for commerce, was extended to ten years. The general appropriation bill, the failure to pass which was the cause of the extra session, was also voted. In this bill the various estimates of several departments, endorsed by the Government, were not accepted. In the exercise of an intelligent judgment the Assembly cut some of these and increased still others. The important irrigation bill was debated for five or six days, only to be laid upon the table until the October session.

When the first regular session of the second Philippine Legislature opened in Manila last month, Mr. Forbes had comparatively little to recommend. He reported that the loss in customs receipts due to the Payne-Aldrich tariff was more than offset by increase in miscellaneous and internal revenue receipts, and he asserted that under the new tariff there had been a quickening of trade throughout the islands. Beyond the irrigation bill, which Mr. Forbes earnestly urges anew, he recommends pensions for civil servants of long service, betterments in the lowest courts, a law to prohibit slavery or involuntary servitude, an increased penalty for cattle-stealing and forging public documents, and a fund to fight the locust pest. Altogether, it appears, first, that there are no gravely vexing public problems requiring legislative action, and, secondly, that the success of the Philippine Assembly is not only far beyond what might have been expected, but ground for the early award of other opportunities for self-government.

SWISS NOTES.

ZURICH, November 10.

Plans for the new university buildings at Zurich have been completed and adopted, and their execution will be begun at once. The site is the old one which commands a fine view of the town and of the lake. The cost of the new buildings will be five and a half million francs. Of this, a considerable part will be spent on the Biological Institute. An additional sum of a million francs will be devoted to the construction and installation of an Institute of Hygiene. Even as in the United States, great attention is being paid to this subject at the Swiss universities. Not many weeks ago, the Institute of Hygiene and Bacteriology at the University of Berne was inaugurated in the presence of the entire faculty and many foreign visitors. The chief address was delivered by Professor Kolle, dean of the medical faculty. Germany was represented on this occasion by Gaffky of Berlin, who is Koch's successor, and France by Vidal of Paris. The Berne Institute is thoroughly modern; and special attention will be given to the study of contagious diseases.

The magnificent collections in the National Museum at Zurich have been somewhat damaged by smoke. The building is close to the central railway station. There was not room enough to enclose all the fine objects in glass. The result has been that some of the ancient textiles, such as vestments, altar-cloths, and handkerchiefs became blackened. It was found necessary to have them cleaned with great care. For the present, many of them have been stowed away for their preservation. Among those thus concealed from the visitor's view are the collection of the "Mödeliplatz," and the famous baptismal *couverture* brought from Fribourg. It is proposed to build a new wing for the museum, or else to transfer these frail treasures to the neighborhood of the Polytechnicum where the smoke will not reach them.

The Cavour anniversaries recalled the fact that the Italian patriot was half-Swiss. His mother was the cultivated Mademoiselle Adèle de Sellon of Geneva, whose sisters made brilliant marriages among the French nobility. For many years Cavour made frequent visits to Geneva, and had always close affiliations with Swiss statesmen and men of letters. He wrote for the *Bibliothèque Universelle;* and it is not improbable that his ideas of freedom and democracy, if not derived from his acquaintance with the Federation, were at least encouraged by his Geneva associations. From Turin he wrote: "If Geneva was not separated from Turin by Mont Cenis, I would have come to ask your hospitality, for I know no intellectual atmosphere more healthful than that which one breathes in Switzerland."

At Berne there has appeared an interesting although fragmentary book of travel. It is an account of the explorations of Dr. Walter Volz, who three years ago met a tragic death in Bussania. This volume contains his biography, and all his scientific and literary remains. Many of these are memoirs and letters written on the spot, during his sojourn in eastern Asia, Polynesia, and East Africa. The adventurous and energetic character of the author, as well as the valuable information which he collected, make this a graphic picture of the regions with which he was so familiar.

During the recent meeting at Bâle of the Swiss Association for the Investigation of Nature, Professor Ostwald delivered an interesting lecture before the "Ido" Universal Language Society. After referring to the progress towards unity and organization in the world, he said that the introduction of the aeroplane had quite changed man's place in nature. Man is a tri-dimensional being; but hitherto his life has been only bi-dimensional. Now, thanks to flying machines, the scope of his activity has been extended; and, moreover, the boundaries formerly separating nations are likely to become less defined. With this increasing cosmopolitanism and unification, there is more than ever a demand for a universal speech. At present, 50 per cent. of the time in German schools is taken up in teaching modern languages. This great waste should not continue. He suggested that some civilized state should take the lead and insist upon the acquisition and employment of a world-language within its territory. It seemed to him that Switzerland with its central position in Europe, and its somewhat international population, was destined to adopt this course. He added that, should such a language be adopted, a central academic authority would be necessary to preserve the purity of the new tongue, and check the development of dialects.

A. A.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

In 1640 an otherwise unknown missionary who was laboring among the natives of Guatemala printed a small treatise, whose punning title may be literally rendered "The Pointer Pointed with Short Points on the Manufacture of Vegetable Ink." The appearance of the surviving copy of this curious publication is said to suggest rather strongly that the inventive friar manufactured his type as well as his ink, and doubtless his

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press as well. Guatemala was the fifth American city to possess a press, when, in 1660, the first professional printer opened his shop there. A bibliography of the city presses, "La Imprenta en Guatemala, 1660-1821," has just been published by José Toribio Medina of Santiago de Chile—a large volume of above seven hundred pages, containing 2,642 titles, besides introduction and notes.

Although a separate government, both civil and ecclesiastical, Guatemala has always been distinctly within the sphere of Mexican influence. It was to Mexico, therefore, that Payo de Ribera, a son of the Duke of Alcalá, naturally applied for a printer, as soon as he discovered that there was no one to help him get out the latest book he had written, in the city to which he was sent as bishop in 1658. The man procured was a good workman, but he maintained the reputation of his craft for thriftlessness. Some of his debts had to be paid before he could get away from Mexico, and the rest of them were among the considerably increased obligations which he bequeathed to his son, along with the printing outfit. The conditions were not favorable to prosperity for those who were dependent upon a reading public. In spite of its university and its European officials, Guatemala was essentially a frontier metropolis. The printing office for more than a century was subject to the varying intellectual activities of the local ecclesiastics or the equally uncertain activity of the civil officials. Only eighty-four titles are recorded for the forty years before 1701, as against two hundred and thirty, for sixty years, at Puebla, or some three hundred and fifty for the same period in Cambridge and Boston. During the eighteenth century, Guatemala much more nearly held its own, turning out just above a thousand titles, as against twelve hundred for Puebla. The forty-seven hundred titles credited by Hildeburn to the Philadelphia press between 1685 and 1784 gives the most convenient basis for comparison with what was going on in English America.

In both Guatemala and English America, religious publications constitute the majority, funeral sermons leading everything else, though followed rather closely by ordinations and installations. So far as interest goes, however, in this group, the Spanish books have all the advantage, for the Protestant theologians had no occasion to devise anything to compete with the brilliant pageantry, the decorated arches, and elaborate holiday processional floats which are perpetuated in these carefully executed Southern engravings. It is hard to say whether the next place in importance belongs to church rows or to unqualified theological treatises. One reason for this doubt is that it is quite impossible for any one not intimately acquainted with the particular disagreement of the moment to tell whether a treatise on a matter of pure theology was not subtly designed to bolster ulterior contentions.

Doubt also arises in deciding where to place many of the briefs for law suits, which kept the Spanish printers busy for a full century before the lawyers in the English colonies began to be reckoned with as patrons of the press. A large proportion of the Spanish litigants were connected with religious establishments, and it is often difficult to guess, from the titles of the briefs, whether the dispute arose from claims to rights in real property or to the payment of dues, or from matters dependent on spiritual opinion. There is plenty of evidence of quarrels, in church and out, in the English colonies, but they did not often get into print until the eighteenth century was well along. Questions of inheritance, of dower rights, and the like, which kept so many Spanish colonial lawyers busy, were probably not of sufficient money value in the English colonies to justify resort to the printing press.

In one line the Guatemala press did almost nothing, and in another nothing has survived wherein the Boston and Philadelphia printers found their most profitable activity. These two go far to account for the numerical bibliographical advantages of the English communities. There is evidence to show that the Spanish planter from the very beginning of printing demanded his almanac as regularly as any New England farmer, but the earliest surviving copy recorded is dated 1792. The first newspaper in Guatemala was issued for the month of November, 1729. It appeared once a month until March, 1731, each issue consisting of four leaves measuring about 7x5 inches. It was not until 1797 that another attempt was made. The weekly *Gazeta de Guatemala* began in February of that year, and continued throughout the Revolutionary period, the account of the vicissitudes occupying more than twenty pages of Sr. Medina's Bibliography.

As to books of economic or industrial interest, the Spanish colonists furnished for treatises on mining and metal-working a market rather larger and more important than that open to the agricultural and veterinary handbooks which were distributed largely by the itinerant venders that traversed New England. The Sociedad Economica de Amantes de la Patria was organized in 1796, and the reports of its annual meetings and prize distributions seem as promising as those of the philosophical, historical, and agricultural societies which came into existence during the same decade in Boston and Philadelphia. The next year, that in which the *Gazeta* began its weekly career, witnessed the opening of the Guatemala Museum. The awakening interest in this sort of thing developed steadily for a decade, when it was rather abruptly turned aside to give way to the agitation concerning the relations between the colony and the mother country. Guatemala was out of the main current of revolutionary excitement, and this very fact gives significance to the evidence that here, as in the other parts of Spanish America, there was a constantly increasing expression of sympathy with the movement toward independence.

Correspondence.

THE FRESHMAN ENGLISH COURSE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is in this country at present a widespread ferment and discussion concerning the teaching of English literature and composition. The discussion has a peculiar application to the freshman English course because of the unique place which that course occupies in the curricula of most of our universities. It is as a rule required of all undergraduates, and it furnishes the greater number of these with all the university training they are to have in English. On the other hand it makes, for the remainder of the students in it, an introduction to the advanced courses in English, and hence it is important that it should give these students a proper basis for their further work. The two aims are not in my judgment incompatible, but they increase the importance and complexity of the problem. Another matter which adds to this complexity is the division which must be made between the teaching of English literature and English composition.

The prevailing method of conducting this freshman English work is as follows: The subject is divided into two courses, one to teach composition and the other literature; the composition course requires a study of various "models of style" and the writing of a large number of themes upon easy subjects, in which work the main emphasis is placed upon form, and not upon ideas, the purpose being to give the student a command of good clear English which he will find useful whenever in later life he has any ideas to express. The literature course is usually a rapid survey of the history of English literature from Alfred or Chaucer to Tennyson. The idea is to give the student a bird's-eye view in order that he may understand, so to speak, the possibilities of the subject, may have his curiosity excited by different periods and authors, and be thus stimulated to further reading and study, and that he may have from the beginning a clear idea of the place of each author in what is often called the evolution of English literature.

To the writer it seems that these methods do not work. This letter is an attempt to explain the nature of a course, now being given for the third year at Indiana University, based upon the opposite theory: namely, that the value of English literature is something quite distinct from its history or from the analysis of its form and technique, that this literary study of literature, as it might be called, should precede a formal or historical study of it; that the only way to teach students to write is to make them think of *what* they are writing, not *how* they are writing, and that the most economical and interesting way to teach composition is in connection with the study of literature, making the themes a means of testing the student's grasp of ideas about literature which he is expected to understand.

The most fundamental idea concerning any subject is its place in the world of knowledge, and its value to life. To understand this is a long task, but the student must begin some time, and it is when he is entering the university, when he is mapping out his education and choosing his life work, that such ideas are most interesting and most valuable to him. Probably university teachers take it too much for granted that their students know why they are studying a particular subject, and neglect what is very necessary: namely, to indicate the general importance of the subject, its relation to other knowledge, and the good which the student may expect to get from it. If the student is to plan his own education he needs all the help of this kind he can get. It is especially true of

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English literature that undergraduates study it blindly, not thinking much about what they want or what they could reasonably expect it to do for them. Whereas in many subjects the value is obvious, on the other hand the value of literature is not obvious, and a good many people who are studying, and some who are teaching it, would have difficulty in giving a sensible reason for the way in which they are spending their time. The problem then is not to give the student, first of all, a history of English literature, nor a knowledge of the principles of style, but it is rather to give him a conception of the whole subject, some notion of literature as a record of a certain kind of thought, and to make that notion as clear and definite and full of meaning as possible. The phrase "the meaning of literature" smacks of various unpleasant and sentimental associations, but, if we have the courage to disregard these for a moment, it is plain that some idea of the meaning of literature is the most important thing to be taught in the freshman course. We should select from the best of our English writers as many works as can be studied carefully, and no more, covering an extent of time and a variety of material wide enough to give the student some notion of the range of the subject, and read these for their meaning (that is, to get out of them as fully and completely as possible the most important things that the author was trying to say), bringing to bear on this work just as much study of history and of style as will aid the student and not retard him. Perhaps one cannot go far with this in one year, but the student's knowledge, as far as it does extend, will be real, involving thought and sense of proportion, as well as memory.

The writer hopes in a book now in preparation to explain in more detail how the scheme can be carried out in a one-year course, but one point briefly stated here will make the idea a little clearer. Any discussion of this problem involves a discussion of the nature of beauty and the discipline which will aid in its perception. Without going beyond the average freshman's depth, one may lay down the proposition (which is confirmed, I believe, by common experience), that up to a certain point the perception of beauty is a matter of intelligence. This idea will take the student far enough to make the distinction between sentimentality and real feeling. Again, the freshman may be easily made to see that underlying any sound achievement of intellect must be a certain honesty and perseverance, which one may call intellectual morality, so that the problem of appreciating beauty becomes for the beginner the task of laying a foundation of intellect and morality upon which such appreciation, if sound, must rest. In other words, the first thing the student needs in order to understand literature is to learn to think, and to think honestly. His freshman course in English ought to make clear to him the necessity for this, and it ought to force him to do it. That nine-tenths of our freshman students are developed far enough to understand and to act on such ideas may be easily proved by experiment, if it is not taken for granted.

Now a one-year survey of the entire history of English literature—a "seeing literature" course, as it has been called—will not do what we have just pointed out as the task of the freshman course. It is not "seeing literature," but seeing history by the back streets. To stuff the student's memory to the bursting point with facts and opinions about literature, the basis for which he has not time adequately to examine, is neither to teach him to think honestly nor, indeed, to think at all. A study of literary technique is likewise inadequate. The point to literature lies in what is said, not in how it is said. The importance of form is second to the importance of subject matter, and the study of form (of lifelong interest, if rightly understood), is meaningless unless this fact of its secondary and merely contributive place is grasped. The only kind of a course that will do for the student what we have just laid down as the desirable thing to have done is a course which is concerned with principles as well as facts—principles illustrated by a study of the meaning of certain works of literature.

The study of English literature is intimately connected with the study of English composition; so intimate is this connection that the two subjects can be much better taught together than separately. Such a treatment of literature as I have outlined will involve the discussion (though not the settlement) of many difficult questions—the relation of literature to education, to science, to politics, to religion. In the end it will come down to a consideration of the point of view of various writers toward different phases of life. The effect of it should be to make the student think about life as intelligently and seriously as he can. Now there is no way of making sure that the student understands what he is being taught, that he is really thinking about his work, so good as requiring him to write essays on various subjects connected with it. And it is difficult to find subjects on which the student will write with more interest.

In the high school the student gets great benefit from writing "little stories of daily life," simple essays on his ordinary work and play. He is learning to put his daily experiences on paper, and for a few years the task will be absorbing and profitable. These events are the most real and important ones in his mind. But when he enters college, another world, the world of ideas, is opening before him. If he is a success, this new world becomes more real and more important to him than the incidents of his boarding house or football field, and about this he should write, if his writing is to be training in thinking, which alone will make it worth while. It is a great fault with most of our elementary courses in composition in the colleges that they make no advance over high school courses so far as subject matter is concerned, and the student is compelled to write about things in which he has no longer a fresh interest. Why should he "studie and make hymselven wood" writing a description of a college building by moonlight, a performance which has no interest or value, either to him or to his teacher? But if he is writing about something which is actually a part of his work, something which demands thought and excites interest, then the student can be made to understand the infinite difficulty and infinite importance of saying exactly what he means.

FRANK AYDELOTTE.

Bloomington, Ind., November 22.

A BOOK OF BEGINNINGS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your comprehensive and sympathetic estimate of the art work of John La Farge, there is a slight mistake in the statement that "From 1859 to 1870 Mr. La Farge was engaged in illustrating 'Enoch Arden' and Browning's 'Men and Women' for the *Riverside Magazine*." It is true that he drew for the *Riverside* (begun in 1867), and that some of his designs showed the Japanese influence which you properly note. But the "Enoch Arden" was a separate volume, and one of such significance, in the history of American book-illustration, that it deserves a word to itself. A certain Boston publishing house had, as I remember it, planned an illustrated edition of that poem, without consulting the poet's "authorized" publishers, in that day of general scrambling for English books which could not be copyrighted in America. Messrs. Ticknor & Fields, accordingly, hastily arranged to issue an orthodox edition, with illustrations of so ambitious a character that their volume might head off its rival. Their "Enoch Arden" of the holiday season of 1864 was the result. Its pictures were somewhat distressingly varied in style and merit; some of the scenes and figures were drawn by the veteran, F. O. C. Darley, in his weakest and most superfluous manner; while others were by Mr. W. J. Hennessy, whose 'prentice work in the illustrated weeklies and elsewhere showed a promise hardly fulfilled in later years. But a great and lasting distinction was given to the volume by eight drawings by La Farge, and four by Vedder, which, on the whole, for originality and a somewhat prodigal display of youthful strength, ushered in the modern period of American book illustration. La Farge's The Island Home, for instance, was purely Japanese, and, as far as I know, the first unmitigatedly Japanese picture drawn by an American artist; while The Solitary and Philip and Annie in the Wood were revelations of a method new in the United States. Similarly strong and striking, and, in their way, frankly impressionistic, were Vedder's The Rescue—a sweep of waters, with a brave swimmer reaching to succor a drowning man, whose two hands (strongly suggestive of the later Rubâiyât) clutch the air in a last struggle—and Enoch Passes Away, a bold and startlingly effective picture, in which Enoch, with rapt vision, passes once more over a swirling ocean, into the arms of Christ on His cross. Perhaps, however, La Farge's The Seal of Silence is the strongest of all these remarkable pictures: a radiant angel, with finger pressed on lip, illustrating the line, "Not to tell her, never to let her know." All these woodcuts were engraved with the utmost care by Marsh, Anthony, Davis, and others of the best exponents of a subsidiary art, which in America, as in England, made "the 'Sixties" a term synonymous with the thought of attainment in designing and engraving on wood. These titles, by themselves, mean nothing to the reader of to-day; but if any one will turn to this volume, in its first edition, before the plates were marred by reprinting, I am inclined to think that he will agree with me in the impression that it was the most important American book illustrated

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by woodcuts up to the date of its issue. To examine it now, when, by a coincidence, the same season is marked by the death of Mr. La Farge and the publication of the autobiography of Mr. Vedder, reminds us that it bore somewhat the same relation to book illustration in America as was borne to British art by the famous pre-Raphaelite illustrations for Tennyson's poems, issued by Moxon in 1857. As Mr. Vedder himself modestly says:

Serious book-illustrations were unknown in the beginning of that short period, at least with us, but were established before it was through. It commenced about the time that I made those now-forgotten illustrations for "Enoch Arden."

CHARLES F. RICHARDSON.

Dartmouth College, November 21.

GLADSTONE ON THE CONSTITUTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is a surprise to find Professor Dawson, in the *Nation* for November 24, assuming as a foregone conclusion that Gladstone did not mean to be taken literally in his dictum that the Federal Constitution was the "most wonderful work ever struck off at a given time by the brain and purpose of man." Alexander Johnston, who was Woodrow Wilson's immediate predecessor in the chair of political economy and jurisprudence at Princeton, assuredly was not of this opinion. In the *New Princeton Review* for September, 1887, he published an essay entitled, "The First Century of the Constitution," devoted in part to refuting Gladstone's statement, and making plain what has, of course, become mere truism since examination and appraisal by his illuminating intelligence, that the Constitution was the result of long processes of evolution, and in no sense a marvel of instantaneous creation. But had any one else pointed this out before? And had Gladstone's seriousness been previously questioned? It is not likely, for Professor Johnston, "one of the ablest and most brilliant contributors to American political science," always considered this essay as among his most important and original pieces of work. T. PERSHING.

Germantown, Pa., November 28.

THE KEY ALPHABET.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The committee of the National Education Association appointed to prepare and recommend a key alphabet for uniform use in indicating pronunciation in all cyclopædias, dictionaries, gazetteers, text, and reference books, have submitted a preliminary report which has appeared in the *Journal of Education* (Boston) for October 20. The report is the result of the co-operation of three different committees, that of the National Education Association having joined with like committees from the Modern Language Association and the American Philological Association.

As was natural under the circumstances, the members of the committees were not unanimous on all the propositions considered. There is, however, an important point on which it appears to me that all could have agreed, but concerning which there seems to have been either failure to concur or failure to consider. The carefulness of the committee is attested by its readiness, expressed in the preliminary report, to welcome suggestions before the submission of the definitive report. It is due to this general invitation that I submit the following considerations:

The committee's use of the symbols *iu* for the sound of *u* in the word *mute,* by the committee written *miut,* is a transcription which I believe to be inadvisable both on theoretical and on practical grounds. It is inadvisable on theoretical grounds, for the sound is neither a dissyllable nor a diphthong, as the spelling *iu* would indicate. The fact, which everyone will doubtless admit, that a *y is concerned in the sound would lead one* to expect a *y* (the letter adopted by the committee to symbolize the first sound in the word *yes*) rather than an *i* (as seems to be advocated by the committee) not only in the transcription of such words as *you* and *union,* but also in that of words like *mute.*

It is inadvisable on practical grounds, for the spelling, if adopted, would tend to create confusion. Combinations containing an *i* before a vowel other than *u* occur, in which the committee would probably say that *y* is not involved. Compare, for example, not only the *ia* of *piano* (the instrument), but the *ia* of words like *pictorial, medial,* and *Fenian.* On the other hand, the *i* in the last syllable of *million* and *onion,* the committee would doubtless consider a *y.* Now, it seems to me that to use *iu* in the transcription of the *u* of *mute* (*miut*) would lead one to expect an *i* also in the transcription of *million* and *onion;* and if these words be so transcribed, the symbol *i* would unnecessarily be made to do service for two distinct sounds, viz., the *i* of *pictorial, medial,* and *Fenian* and the *y* sound involved in *mute, million,* and *onion.* Why not reserve the *i* for the *ia* of words like *pictorial* and use the symbol *y* for the *y* sound involved in words like *mute?* If this is not done, would not the spelling *miut* for the latter word suggest the pronunciation *mee-oot?*

The study of foreign languages would also be facilitated by this distinction; and the introduction of foreign words into English might then be accompanied to a less degree by the appearance in our dictionaries of such fantastic pronunciations as *pi-u* instead of *pyu* for *più, pi-ano* instead of *pyano* for *piano* (soft), and *fi-asco* instead of *fyasco* for *fiasco.*

A uniform system of key notation is certainly "a consummation devoutly to be wished," and the committee is to be congratulated on its being able to present, in such diversity of opinion, an alphabet as satisfactory as the one it proposes.

A. P. RAGGIO.

University of Maine, November 20.

ROOSEVELT DEFENDED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been for many years a faithful and deeply interested reader of the *Nation,* and have been greatly profited thereby. It has done more than any other paper during the past twenty-five years to guide my own thinking on political subjects. I have been all the more deeply grieved and disappointed to see it assail Mr. Roosevelt while he with splendid courage was fighting and defeating the unscrupulous bosses of his party, the Trusts that have corruptly used money to accomplish their own selfish ends, and the commercialized press that has been hand in glove with them—such forces as the *Nation* has continuously opposed ever since I have been familiar with it. Whatever may be Mr. Roosevelt's faults (and I have often criticised him for them) they are insignificant when compared with his virtues and with the great service he has rendered the country. Notwithstanding the defeat of the Republican party, the cause Mr. Roosevelt represented is not down. Nor will he remain in obscurity. One may feel sure that he will rise again, and will yet do splendid service for his country.

WM. O. CAMPBELL.

Munich, Germany, November 12.

THE INTERNATIONAL WHO'S WHO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The publishers of the "International Who's Who" have recently favored a number of persons with a proposal to insert their names and biographies in that volume, upon condition that they subscribe in advance for one copy of the completed work, at a cost of five dollars. Many public libraries, as well as individuals, may be led unsuspectingly to purchase this book upon the supposition that the list of names contained in it is as representative as the editors know how to make it. It seems due the public, therefore, to call attention to the fact that purchasers of the "International Who's Who" will really be getting merely a list restricted in part at least by the willingness of those included to pay five dollars in advance. Such a list can scarcely be regarded as an extremely useful work of reference. It should be added, lest unfair misapprehensions be caused, that this publication appears to have nothing in common with the English or the American "Who's Who." A. O. L.

Baltimore, Md., November 17.

Literature.

THE YOUNG DISRAELI.

The Life of Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of Beaconsfield. By William Flavelle Monypenny. Vol. I. 1804-1837. New York: The Macmillan Co. $3 net.

Lord Rowton was Disraeli's biographer designate, and when he died, after spending some years in amassing his material, without having really begun writing the authorized Life, there was a sense both of defeated expectation and of loss. But Mr. Monypenny's first volume removes all fear that a first-class subject for biography might suffer for lack of a writer to do it justice. To as much sympathy with his hero as Lord Rowton could have had he adds a critical detachment and a power of independent judgment which that intimate of Disraeli could scarcely have displayed. Skill in handling and arranging the matter, together with a swiftly moving and often pointed style, also goes to the making of this book, which must be pro-

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nounced an excellent performance that arouses the highest hopes for the volumes yet to come.

It might seem hazardous to deal separately with Disraeli's youth, yet the experiment is justified both by the extraordinary interest which attaches to his beginnings, and by the fact that the period covered lends itself to treatment as a whole. If it be true that a man's character is developed and his driving thoughts marked out before he is thirty, we may well fix an exclusive attention, for a time, upon the early years of a remarkable career. And without being didactic about it, Mr. Monypenny makes it clear that Disraeli's leading qualities, and even his political convictions (or preferences), were sharply differentiated before he had reached the mid-path of life. It is a fascinating unfolding of the man that he makes for us—fascinating and astounding. Not even Disraeli himself could have imagined a romantic being combining more amazing characteristics than we see his to have been, or running a more incredible course. Precocious, enormously conceited, extravagantly dandified, dowered with a double portion of assurance and impudence, he yet possessed a genius which enabled him to carry off what would have ruined an ordinary man, and to impress himself upon hard-headed men of the world and seasoned statesmen as one even in his youth to be reckoned with. His own recorded predictions of his coming greatness may be partly ironic—for Disraeli could on occasion mock at himself—but the impression he made upon others is unmistakable. At the age of twenty-six he went to dine with Bulwer, Charles Villiers and Alexander Cockburn being also at table, and Bulwer wrote: "If we had been severally taken aside and asked which was the cleverest of the party, we should have been obliged to say, 'the man in the green velvet trousers.'" Disraeli's talented sister Sarah believed him from boyhood to be destined to the highest things; and the lady who afterwards became his wife, and whom we barely meet at the end of the present volume, declared to her brother: "Mark what I say—mark what I prophesy. Mr. Disraeli will in a very few years be one of the greatest men of his day." For once, masculine judgment and feminine intuition agreed.

The absolutely new material which Mr. Monypenny presents is not extensive, but is highly revealing. It consists partly of autobiographic fragments. These are frankly admitted to be "somewhat imaginative." Disraeli was never fully delivered from the sentiment of Contarini Fleming: "if a person have imagination, experience appears to me to be of little use." His own account of his ancestry will not bear critical examination. The author plainly warns us that "Disraeli, with his infinitely subtle and elusive mind and character, is a perpetual snare to the unwary who place too literal a construction upon his isolated words and actions." But his letters to his family, particularly to his sister, are human documents which shine by their own light, while most suggestive of all is the so-called "Mutilated Diary." Here Disraeli spoke to himself with as much sincerity as he could ever master, and many of the entries search his character deeply while betraying his boundless ambitions. "Nature has given me an awful ambition and fiery passions." "They shall not say I have failed." "I am only truly great in action. If ever I am placed in a truly eminent position I shall prove this. I could rule the House of Commons, although there would be a great prejudice against me at first." These secret communings are, of course, more meaning than his jaunty published predictions that he should in time give a fine exhibition of the true manner of a Leader of the House of Commons and also as spokesman for the Government in the House of Lords. But we do not, in fact, need to go beyond this volume to become convinced with Mr. Monypenny that Disraeli had a "dæmonic ambition." It was this together with his masterful will that enabled him to strangle his vehement passion for the first woman with whom he fell in love, because a marriage with her would have hampered the career which he had marked out himself.

Disraeli's early novels are dealt with interestingly by Mr. Monypenny. He gives cool estimates of what they were in themselves, astonishing productions for a mere boy, no doubt, yet with no sustained imagination and defaced by enormities of style; and also shows what and how much they reflected of Disraeli's own experiences and attitude. But from the first the wondrous youth felt that fame did not beckon him to literature. "Poetry is the safety-valve of my passions, but I wish to act what I write," says the Mutilated Diary. The novels were well enough in their way as bringing in money and winning notoriety—"and notoriety to Disraeli was at this time as the breath of his nostrils"—but public life was the thing for which his soul thirsted. His early attempts to break into it are here narrated in full, no effort being made to suppress the evidence that Disraeli had at first an easy political conscience, and was ready to go with either party or any leader that could advance him. This toying of his with convictions and his dallying with rival politicians brought upon him the terrible bludgeoning from O'Connell. But the undaunted Disraeli, whose courage was as great as his impudence, rejoined with rapier-thrusts, and, he wrote to his sister, "every one says I have done it in first-rate style." The entry in the Diary was: "Row with O'Connell in which I greatly distinguish myself." It was this vigor of audacity, combined with unusual gifts for public speaking, which steadily heightened Disraeli's public reputation, till at last "the inarticulate Tory squires" came to look to him as a heaven-sent Mercurius, and, after repeated failures, returned him to Parliament. With his election to it the first volume closes.

Grandson of a banker, Disraeli needed a great deal of money, but long had little. One of the painstaking and also illuminating features of Mr. Monypenny's book is his full disclosure of the youth's many financial ventures and his constant embarrassment for lack of funds. Disastrous stock-jobbing, the flat failure of a newspaper in which he induced Murray to invest $130,000, with several literary disappointments and a habit of living far beyond his means, loaded Disraeli with a frightful burden of debt. For a long time he was in daily fear of arrest, and had very carefully to arrange it, when agreeing to speak at a political meeting, to make sure that his eloquence should not be cut short by the sheriff's man. The fortune which he later married had not come to him when this volume ends. But full recognition had come; he had tried his powers; his "Oriental tendency" had declared itself; and we leave him with his captivating youth forecasting the unexampled triumphs of that manhood into the history of which we may hope that Mr. Monypenny will soon lead us.

CURRENT FICTION.

The Finer Grain. By Henry James. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

He thought he had already, poor John Berridge, tasted in their fulness the sweets of success; but nothing yet had been more charming to him than when the young Lord, as he irresistibly and, for greater certitude, quite correctly figured him, fairly sought out, in Paris, the new literary star that had begun to hang, with a fresh red light, over the vast, even though rather confused, Anglo-Saxon horizon; positively approaching that celebrity with a shy and artless appeal.

Thus characteristically opens the initial story in this latest group of Mr. James's studies. To read the sentence aloud is to realize how far the speech of print may come to vary from its natural model. The second semi-colon, flung out as a life-belt at the last desperate moment, is all that fetches one through. Nobody could have invented a more taking parody of the Jacobite style. And to this pass—to the pass of the artist who descends in his latter phases to the helpless imitation of his own manner—it may well be feared that Mr. James is destined to arrive ere long. Never has his substance seemed so attenuated, his manner so uselessly finicking, as in these five studies, as we must again

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say. For they are not tales, or stories at all, so much as disquisitions apropos of certain shadowy incidents. There is no lack of the material of fiction, but the writer scorns to deal with it except with pince-nez and pincers. The affair of John Berridge thus reduces itself to bald terms: Berridge the author is made up to by the lord, and besought to give an opinion of a book written by a friend of his lordship's. The book shows itself beneath contempt at a glance; and Berridge's confusion is great when the friend turns out to be a lovely princess to whose eyes he has already succumbed. It is worse confounded when, in all her "Olympian" loveliness, she flatly demands of him a puffing preface for her tawdry romance. As an Olympian she succeeds in carrying him off in her motor-car for a loitering drive through nocturnal Paris. But the enchanting intimacy of the experience is blasted by her vulgar purpose. Heart-brokenly he confesses his inability to do what she asks.

"Then you don't like me—?" she murmurs, driven to the last feminine bulwarks.

"Princess," was in response the sound of the worshipper, "Princess, I adore you. But I'm ashamed for you."

"Ashamed—?"

"You *are* Romance—as everything, and by what I can make out, every one about you is; so what more do you want? Your Preface—the only one worth speaking of—was written long ages ago by the most beautiful imagination of man."

She cannot comprehend; and the kiss he presses upon her wondering lips at a parting which he assures her is final, merely seals his tribute to Romance. The substance of the following episodes is far less robust—a fabric of the flimsier web, it may be, rather than of the finer grain.

The Wicker-Work Woman. By Anatole France. Translated by M. P. Willcocks. New York: John Lane Co.

We have here a very satisfactory translation of a pretty unpleasant book—a portion of Anatole France's work which one rather regets to see in English. "The Wicker-Work Woman" (Le Mannequin d'osier), a novel in the series called Histoire Contemporaine, deals with the breakdown of M. Bergeret's domestic establishment and the merciless process by which he gradually extrudes his empty-headed and erring wife from his home. Bergeret is one of France's half-ironical projections of himself—a sedate university professor devoted to classical scholarship and given to detached and unworldly speculation on the universe. His life is made up of two strands closely woven together, yet utterly distinct: the serene life of the intellect which operates in his study and in his intercourse with men, and the sordid life of the body, which furnishes the only point of contact between him and his bickering household. The disjointed structure of the book appears to be an effect of design to emphasize the juxtaposition and grotesque incompatibility of the animal and the intellectual natures, the insuitability of the mind to its tenement. The divorce of M. Bergeret seems to have a certain symbolical significance; in the life of reason, it seems to suggest, there can be no truce with the body.

Now, there is something unwholesome in the intellectual detachment of M. Bergeret. In spite of his monastic withdrawal from the flesh, he is troubled at times by the visions of St. Anthony. "Were I, for instance," he says on one occasion, "to express all the fancies that crowd my mind at this moment, all the notions which pass through my head, like a swarm of witches riding on broomsticks down a chimney, if I were to describe the manner in which I see Madame Gromance, . . . the vision of her which comes to me, . . . a thousand times more waggish and indecent than that famous figure introduced in the scene of the Last Judgment on the north portal of Saint-Exupère by a masterly craftsman who had caught a glimpse of Lust himself as he leant over a vent-hole of hell; if I were accurately to reveal the strangeness of my dream, it would be concluded that I am prey to some repulsive mania." This passage suggests the snake that lurks in the garden of Epicurus; a taint of sensuality, sometimes violent, sometimes nearly imperceptible, is almost everywhere discoverable in the works of Anatole France. His serenity, one is compelled to feel, is not so much achieved as thrust upon him by the spontaneous recoil of a powerful sensual imagination. It is the serenity of disgust—a disgust which is rather the cause than the result of his philosophy.

A Successful Wife. By G. Dorset. New York: Harper & Bros.

This book may be read as a wholesome antidote to David Graham Phillips's coincident effusion, "The Husband's Story." It is in several respects an extraordinary piece of work. It presents the case of the "American woman" from a very different point of view, or, rather, it presents a very different variety of that genus from that which is now most commonly put upon exhibition. Here is no picture of the worthy but fatuous American male in the act of being bled and trod upon by the rapacious and dissolute creature whom he patiently calls wife. The shoe is quite upon the other foot. The woman who is supposed to tell the story belongs to an old-fashioned order: a sort of Griselda, with the instinct of service, of endless courage and patience, and yet with a high spirit of her own which asserts itself at the crucial moments of her experience. She has that mingling of intellectual artlessness and practical acuteness which is so common among American girls of her class. For she has a class: that of the small shopkeeper, the drummer, and the saleswoman. She herself is a stenographer, and at fifteen has become the head and chief wage-earner in a family of five. She does not lose the earmarks of class, and her story is told with remarkable consistency of style. "I don't think there is a creature living who would not love to be 'successful,' and who isn't ready to spend twenty-five cents, or even twenty-five dollars, on a book which would tell them how to succeed. You hear such a lot of talk nowadays about success!" In this utterly commonplace vein her tale is for the most part told. She has no apprehension of words as anything more than vague counters. She pronounces Swinburne "very pretty," and Mr. Kirkland's remonstrance means nothing to her, though she reports it faithfully:

"Now, for instance," he suggests, "you wouldn't call this scarlet wall of quivering foliage, this liquid-hearted corner of the woods, nice, would you?"

I said yes, that I thought it was very nice indeed.

Mr. Kirkland thereupon abandons the vocabulary, but he marries the girl, and has altogether the best of the bargain. He is an "artist," a genius, and, of course, a good deal of a scapegrace. The experience of this wedded pair is not smooth, but it is not conventionally rough, either. The woman has the fidelity and the sturdy endurance of her kind. Even in her hardest youthful struggles with poverty, she had never consented to be pitiful: "Nobody knew when I was tired, frightened, or disheartened; I didn't have feelings that were hurt, and I didn't cry." Nevertheless, there is a treasured self behind an inner citadel of this apparently commonplace nature. Eventually, the husband discovers it, and in the same moment beholds his own comparative littleness: and in that moment begins their real union.

Deep in Piney Woods. By J. W. Church. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

In this story of the turpentine belt of Georgia, where thrive the mysteries and horrors of the Voodoo religion, that dread cult of the snake, we meet with a picture of a Southern household which has preserved from the ruin of the civil war much of its former prosperity and ease. Major Claiborne, comfortable and picturesque, if archaic in his manner of life; Brett Reed, the hero, born in the South, but trained in the North, and successful in every conflict; Savannah, the Major's daughter, and the various negroes, though all are drawn conventionally, will doubtless appeal to those to whom a romance laid in the South is ever dear. That the negro problem should enter into the plot was

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of course inevitable, considering the Northern education of the hero.

A VIRGINIAN WHO WROTE ABOUT VIRGINIA.

The Old Virginia Gentleman and Other Sketches. By George W. Bagby. Edited with an introduction by Thomas Nelson Page. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50 net.

The author of this book was born in Buckingham County, Virginia, in 1828. He studied medicine and began to practise it in Lynchburg. But the pen almost at once drew him away from the scalpel. He eventually moved to Richmond and succeeded John R. Thompson as editor of the *Southern Literary Messenger*. After the civil war he occasionally appeared on the platform. He died in 1883. This collection of his better-known writings is put before the public distinctly in the hope of winning for him a place among American men of letters.

Mr. Page is quite right in holding the sketches worth preserving. For the life they depict had not merely historical interest, but also, undeniably, a great charm. No one, probably, ever felt this charm more keenly than Dr. Bagby, and no one except, perhaps, Mr. Page himself, has ever conveyed it more skilfully. For Dr. Bagby had a distinct literary gift; not a great or impressive gift, but such a gift in prose as may be compared to that in verse of the minor poet who is as safe in his own limited sphere as the great poet is in his. To characterize his writing is difficult. Perhaps the best adjective for his distinctive quality is whimsical; but unfortunately the dictionaries do not supply a noun to correspond to it. The English writers of whom he oftenest reminds one are Addison, in the Sir Roger de Coverley papers, and Lamb, in his personal sketches. We do not mean that his achievement entitles him to rank with either. But there are passages in the title essay which would have done no discredit to Addison. "My Wife and My Theory of Wives" might have been written, almost *in toto*, by Lamb.

Some of the other papers are less successful. The humor of "My Vile Beard," undeniably funny as it is, does not rise above broad farce. Elsewhere, the newspaper flavor is often perceptible. Many of the allusions are hopelessly local or personal. Now and then a Northern reader will doubtless be moved to mild resentments—though never, probably, to real wrath. If one looks for anything in the nature of a coldly dispassionate estimate of the bygone civilization one is reading about, one will be disappointed. It is of the essence of Dr. Bagby's mood to be resolutely and consistently, even if at times a bit satirically, partisan and provincial. Occasionally, too, we are bound to confess, the chord of sentiment seems to us to be a little overstrained, and the pathetic note dwelt upon a trifle too insistently. But there is not a heavy, unreadable page in the book. And naturally. For Dr. Bagby, truly as Mr. Page can declare that "God made him a man of letters," was also, nevertheless, a newspaper writer, and a successful one. That was his chief vocation. Most of these sketches have found their way into a book because they were first widely read in newspapers. In the matter of readableness, they are not experiments. At least one, "How Rubinstein Played," is known to millions—of whom the great majority have probably never heard the author's name.

To endeavor to secure, at this late day, a wider recognition and reputation for such a writer is, we repeat, worth while. For there is here a genuine contribution to our store of sympathies and appreciations; a true transcript of a far from negligible volume of American life; something in its way as original and sincere as is to be found in any American writing whatsoever. A vast deal has been written about Virginia and about the South, and much, particularly of late years, has been written in the South by Southerners. But out of the old South, the South before the war, there came extremely little that had the quality of human verity. The best material we have for a critical view of the ante-bellum Southern civilization, particularly on its economic side, is in the books of travel of Frederick Law Olmsted, an outsider. It is true that in recent years there have appeared a number of volumes of reminiscence of that period, and some of them have decided value. But Dr. Bagby wrote out of the heart of it. What he wrote and what is here preserved is not so much a view or description or account of the old Southern life as it is an expression of it—and an expression of it in very intimate moods. To read his unpretentious sketches is, therefore, to come as near as one can come to re-entering that vanished order, that extinct civilization. It is, of course, the civilization that was largely built upon slavery as an economic basis; a civilization out of touch and out of sympathy with modern life in many ways, some of which are here amusingly exhibited. But it was also a civilization in which many foreign observers found more attraction than in anything else that the American of that day has to offer. It was the civilization which in the eighteenth century produced Washington and Marshall, and in the next century the army of Northern Virginia.

The Psychology of Religious Experience. By Edward Scribner Ames. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $2.50 net.

This is one of the most important books on the psychology of religion that have appeared since James's "Varieties of Religious Experience." It covers a larger portion of the whole field than any other book on the subject that has yet been written, and it is scholarly in tone, clear in expression, liberal and unprejudiced in attitude. Its author, being both a professional psychologist and a minister, has the unusual advantage of seeing his subject from two somewhat distinct points of view, and hence avoids the limitations of either. The book may be divided into two chief parts, one dealing with primitive religion, the other with the religion of to-day; and the two are unified by the application of functional psychology to the interpretation of both, and by the thesis which runs through the entire work, that "religion is the consciousness of the highest social values."

In primitive life, our author points out, religion was a matter of social custom. And not only in a general way is this true; it is seen in all the details of religious expression. "Religion in its first form is a reflection of the most important group interests through symbols and ceremonials based upon the activities incident to such interests." These social symbols, once established, "tend to become fixed and to secure themselves against change by natural safeguards." This point of view as to social expression and custom is now applied, often most ingeniously, to several primitive phenomena such as taboo, magic, belief in spirits, sacrifice, prayer, mythology. In general, it may be said that the treatment of these phenomena is a systematic attack upon the older intellectualistic interpretation such as one finds in Tylor, Spencer, Jevons, etc., and an attempt to explain them in terms of functional psychology, as social reactions upon the environment. Belief does not come *first*, but arises rather as a consequence of activity. Sacrifice originally is not *to* the god, but is rather a ceremonial eating of the useful animal which thereupon or thereafter *becomes* the god. Prayer does not presuppose a "spirit" to whom it shall be made; it arises rather from something like interjection and the common habit of thinking in social terms. If space permitted, it would be interesting to examine in detail Professor Ames's various conclusions and his grounds for them. Certainly, some of his conclusions must be accepted, and all of them are suggestive; something, however, might still be said in defence of the older view, and it seems probable to the reviewer at least that belief in spirits had considerably more to do in the development of primitive religion than Professor Ames is willing to admit.

The last part of the book is given up to the religion of to-day, especially as found in America—its growth in the individual and its relation to various aspects of modern life. An excellent re-

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view is presented of the religion of childhood and youth, in which Professor Ames takes occasion to express in no uncertain tones his disapproval of the artificial conversion and the induced revival, and to urge the importance of education in the religious life. Three excellent chapters are devoted to the place of religion in psychical experience, in which the functional point of view is again emphasized, the most important thing in religion as in life being neither ideation nor feeling, but the basal reactions from which both of these arise. The book ends with a chapter on The Religious Consciousness in Relation to Democracy and Science, the author pointing out the necessity of elasticity and growth in religion and the consequent need of new forms and symbols to express adequately the religious consciousness of the modern world.

Excellent as this book is, one closes it with a feeling that is akin to surprise, considering its large scope and its seeming thoroughness. The reader has, namely, the impression that one who should look to it for his idea of what religion is like, would come away with a very partial, not to say extraordinary, notion. And on analysis it should seem that this peculiarity is due to the extremely external point of view from which the whole book is written. Thus, there is no mention of mysticism, scant description of the inner experience of the religious individual, and slight reference to religious beliefs, the idea of "God" being treated altogether pragmatically and disposed of in a few pages, while the belief in immortality is not once mentioned. In short, one might indeed derive from the book a good idea of the ways in which religion gets itself expressed in society, but not much notion as to how religion feels to the individual. This external treatment, in its turn, seems to be due to the author's consistent and invariable use of functional psychology. Such a result is, of course, not absolutely inevitable, but it is certainly extremely natural. Functional psychology is so interested in the outcome of conscious states and their biological, sociological, and ethical consequences that it often forgets to consider the conscious state itself. As consciousness is for the sake of action, action gets almost all of the emphasis. Thus the inner life is slighted, and functional psychology which seeks (as Professor Ames explicitly shows) to absorb almost everything, ends by becoming almost everything—except psychology.

Another reason why one feels that Professor Ames's book is inadequate as a description of religion is to be found in his fundamental thesis as to what religion is. To say that "religion is the consciousness of the highest social values," if it means anything at all, certainly indicates that religion is not what most of us have understood by it, but is simply and solely social morality. In fact, Professor Ames more than once explicitly says as much. And he illustrates his meaning in various ways—for instance, by insisting that "non-religious persons" are not the unbelieving or the non-mystical, but simply those who for lack of some mental endowment are not interested in the welfare of society, whereas the typically religious people are those who work for social improvement. It is a little startling to learn that nearly all of us have throughout our lives been using the word religion in quite the wrong sense, and that it really means something altogether different from what we had all supposed. Of course, Professor Ames has a right to define his terms as he likes; but it should seem that before appropriating a common and useful, though indefinite, old word such as religion, and making it synonymous with another common word, he should at least have coined for us a new word which we might use in place of the old one. For whatever one calls it, there is in most human lives a call for help outside one's self, an upward look, a despair of the merely ethical and the merely human, and a corresponding source of "horizon, stability, and hope," not given by morality or by other ideals, and not to be described as consciousness of the higher values of society. This thing, call it what you will and value it as you will, is certainly worthy of the psychologist's study. And it is therefore somewhat disappointing to find so little reference to it in Professor Ames's admirable book.

The Shifting and Incidence of Taxation. By Edwin R. A. Seligman, McVickar Professor of Political Economy, Columbia University. New York: The Columbia University Press. $3 net.

This is the third edition of this work, revised and enlarged to 395 pages, whereas the original of 1892 covered but 184 pages. It has proved throughout this period a particularly serviceable treatise to the students of public finance. The earlier multiplication of various types of theory upon this aspect of taxation persists in this last edition. Moderns are subdivided into (1) the physiocrats; (2) adherents of the absolute theory, *i. e.*, Adam Smith and Ricardo; (3) believers in the equal diffusion of taxes; (4) capitalizers of taxes; (5) eclectics; (6) agnostics; (7) socialists; and (8) those using mathematical analysis in their discussions. This affords an ample frame on which to display varieties of opinion, but from a logical standpoint, it is a hopeless hodge-podge. At least three or four different bases of classification—such as scientific methods, agreement in conclusions, partisan attitude—are simultaneously employed to effect a single classification.

The analytic part of the work reproduces the many excellences of the earlier editions. If any of the topics should be singled out for discussion, perhaps the treatment of the capitalization of taxation (especially pp. 221-226) is the most tempting:

> When a special tax is imposed on any one class of commodities, . . . the tax will . . . fall entirely on the original owner . . . for the tax will be discounted through a depreciation of the capital value of the article by a sum equal to the capitalized value of the tax (p. 221).

Thus—the example is our own—if suddenly an annual dog tax of five dollars is levied, and the dog's owner, influenced thereto by the tax in question, and finding the dog of no further use to him, gives me the dog *gratis*, and in case I pay thereafter the annual dog tax so long as the dog shall live, then the "tax falls entirely on the original owner!" Despite the indubitable evidence of my annual tax receipts, I am told that the depreciated capital value at which I got the dog has "*virtually*" exempted me from this tax burden! This is hard for the wayfaring man to credit. Still, when a tax like the English land tax has for generations been fixed in amount, in the sense that each parcel of land is taxed annually for a certain fixed and invariable money sum; and when the land has been sold and resold subject, as it were, to this perpetual State mortgage, it is difficult to assert that the payer of the rent charge (for such the tax has become) is sensible of lessening any income which he ever had or hoped to have for private expenditure. The rarity of taxes similar to the English land tax, however, makes the argument for capitalization seldom applicable to modern taxes.

The actual process by which taxes are shifted is a tortuous and a complicated one. It is well, therefore, for the student of finance to disclose his hypotheses frankly, and to admit that almost any unforeseen circumstance may invalidate his deductions. One must shun *the academic fear of seeming academic* in these matters. The considerations are suggested by Professor Seligman's statement that a poll tax "is clearly not susceptible of being shifted" (p. 371). Yet in States where the prepayment of the poll tax is a prerequisite for the exercise of the suffrage, campaign committees have been known to assume the tax quite readily.

The Iliad of Homer. Translated into English hexameter verse by Prentiss Cummings. An abridgment which contains all the main story and the most celebrated passages. In two volumes. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $3 net.

Mr. Cummings adds himself to the already exasperating number and variety of critics who have propounded solu-

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tions of the Homeric question; for him, the Iliad is composed of "The Wrath of Achilles" by a first Homer, of additions celebrating the exploits of Hector by a second, or "Trojan," Homer, and of still further additions by a third Homer, whose touch is lighter, but whose contributions are episodical and not always relevant, and whose taste falls something short of his execution. These critical findings of the translator are reflected in the character of his abridgment; it includes most of the first and second Homers, but only the best parts of the third.

In the long and not uninteresting preface containing this contribution to Homeric vexation the author tells also in simple language the story of the Iliad, devotes a few pages to elementary directions for the pronunciation of proper names, and in the remaining two-thirds discusses the English hexameter. "English hexameter is subject to two inflexible laws: first, that every foot must begin with an accented syllable; second, that the several feet properly read must, within the laws of English versification, keep time." The second law is easily obeyed; but to the first, also, the translator yields consistent obedience, though the fact that "all monosyllabic connectives, the preposition, the article, and most pronouns and auxiliary verbs are unaccented," makes the difficulty of observing this law in the first foot of the line so great that the translator is aware of "no modern hexameter . . . wherein the law is adhered to rigidly." Other guiding principles are set forth, but are not exacting enough to be called laws; and the largeness of liberty seen to be allowable in English hexameter is so great that one is inclined to agree with the view which Mr. Cummings takes pains to criticise, that "the English language has no prosody," and to conclude that, after all, so far as hexameter is concerned, the only rules are those imposed by a delicate sense of the music of language.

As to the sum total of Mr. Cummings's translation, it neither descends to the lowest nor rises to the highest. That it is conscientiously done is evident enough, but its distinction, whether in form or content, is hardly such as to warrant a hope that it will not take its place with the forty or so unsuccessful attempts at hexameter translation which the author tells us have already appeared in print. Let us choose an example out of a possible great number, copying it without verse division:

Now, when a king he met, or man of uncommon distinction, him would he flatter in soldierly wise, but admonish him saying: "Sir, it befitteth not thee to play the part of a coward; be an example; sit down, and make the soldiers do likewise. No wise thou knowest the real designs of King Agamemnon; this is a test, a ruse, that only, and vengeance will follow. Do not we kings who were there know what took place in the council? Take care! Kings, vicegerents of Zeus, are highhanded; and this one holdeth his honor from Zeus, and Zeus, dread Arbiter, loves him."

This, with the exception of the rhythm, is good prose, but indifferent poetry. Of course, it would be absurd to demand in a translation of Homer the style of a Milton; but if verse form is to be used at all, diction and style should distinguish the work from the language of mere romantic story-telling, or even of Elizabethan prose:

> Neque enim concludere versum
> Dixeris esse satis.

Notes.

Early in December, Houghton Mifflin Company will publish a collection of Julia Ward Howe's later poems, entitled "At Sunset," upon which she was engaged at the time of her death; they were written mostly during the last eleven years, many of them for notable public occasions.

Volume XII, the last of the actual text of "The Cambridge Modern History," which will appear in a few days, is called "The Latest Age," and brings the history up to the present day.

An abridged edition, Professor Saintsbury's "Historical Manual of English Prosody," will be published by Macmillan, for use in schools and colleges.

About five hundred unpublished letters of Madame de Deffand to Horace Walpole, besides eleven letters by Walpole to her, are being prepared for publication by Dr. Paget Toynbee. The volume will be issued by Methuen.

The first volume of F. W. H. Migeod's "The Languages of West Africa" is announced by Kegan Paul.

Prof. Alexander Bugge has edited the first instalment of the "Diplomatarium Norvegicum," or documents concerning the relations of England and Norway in the Middle Ages.

The Putnams have in the press "A Short History of Women's Rights," by Eugene H. Hecker.

The Baker & Taylor Company will publish "Playground Technique and Playcraft," edited by Arthur and Lorna H. Leland. It is described as a text book in playground architecture, construction, equipment, organization, and supervision for playground committees, park boards, and manual training teachers. The same house announces "The Growth of the Gospels," by Prof. Flinders Petrie, the Egyptologist.

The Sixteenth International Congress of Orientalists, which was to have been held at Athens in the spring of 1911, has been postponed to the spring of 1912, presumably on account of the present disturbed conditions in Greece. The committee of organization includes the rector of the National University, the Mayor of Athens, representatives of the English, German, American, French, Italian, and Austrian archæological institutes at Athens, and various professors of the Athens University. The secretary of the committee, on whom the chief labor of the work of organization will devolve, is Spyridion P. Lambros, the well-known professor of history at the National University (Rue Mavrocordato, 10), to whom scholars and others interested are asked to send their names as members of the proposed congress. The committee announces that in connection with the congress, which will consist of the usual number of sections, special excursions will be planned to historical and archæological sites of Greece and adjacent countries. A second bulletin, which is promised by the end of the year, will furnish further details regarding the precise date and duration of the congress.

A prospectus of "The History of Nations," edited by Henry Cabot Lodge, and published by John D. Morris & Company of Philadelphia, has just been received. Among other delightful bits of misinformation we find the following statement: "Volume 21, South America, by Philip P. Wells, Ph.D. . . . This able work is the only complete, up-to-date, reliable history of the South American nations ever published. . . . Dr. Wells delved deeply into hidden sources." Examination of the volume itself reveals the fact that it is almost entirely a translation of Deberle's "Histoire de L'Amérique du Sud," which has once before been appropriated, the first time by a Spaniard, whose work was translated into English by Adnah D. Jones. It seems to have a fatal attraction for literary pirates.

In the opinion of Francis McCullagh, expressed in an article on "Some Causes of the Portuguese Revolution," in the last number of the *Nineteenth Century*, the clerical question was largely artificial, however effective it may have been in overturning the monarchy:

> The Portuguese, a proud people with a great history, are keenly sensitive to the fact that now, in the twentieth century, they do not occupy the same relative position in Europe which they occupied in the fifteenth century. They have declined, and are in consequence irritable and despondent. Suddenly they are told that this decline is due to clericalism.

Repetition finally convinced them of the truth of the assertion. But Mr. McCullagh does not think that the departure of the monks will make much difference to Portugal.

Volumes XIX and XX of Scribner's Memorial Edition of Meredith bring "The Amazing Marriage" and "Celt and Saxon." The latter novel, first published in the summer in a separate edition, was reviewed in the *Nation*, August 25.

Those who are familiar with the department of *Harper's Magazine* known as the Easy Chair, will find old friends in the volume of essays which W. D. Howells has just published under the title of "Imaginary Interviews" (Harpers). The book scarcely prompts one to a review of Mr. Howells's ideas, which contain nothing that is in any way revolutionary. Written deliberately with the mannerisms of chit-chat, they touch upon a limited range of agreeable American life. A vein of irony, never profound but always whimsical, coupled with a tender fancy and mellow philosophizing, ensures a wide reading for the book by those who enjoy a harmless play-acting with life and ideas.

Hilaire Belloc was apparently put to it

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to discover a name for his new volume of essays, after he had dubbed his last entertaining book "On Everything"; but he finds plenty of material for his pen in the two-score of papers or so now gathered under the title "On Anything" (Dutton). In the paper On a Poet written upon the occasion of Swinburne's death, he moralizes upon time's changes in a poet's or author's fame, and gives an estimate of Swinburne's poetry. "In all his work the mere nature of South England drives him. . . Whoever best knows that landscape and that sky best feels him." After speaking of Swinburne's feeling for rhythm and word, Mr. Belloc turns to his "paganism," and denies that quality to him in any true sense of the term. Swinburne belongs distinctly to the new world of yearning that came into being in the fourth century of our era. Among the other subjects treated in Mr. Belloc's customary vein are: Irony, People in Books, The Abstracted Man, The Method of History, Milton, Astarte, The Candor of Maturity, The Judgment of Robespierre.

In a well-printed, handy volume, uniform with his "Art of Naval Warfare,' Smith, Elder & Co. have reprinted, under the title of "Sea Power and Other Studies," twelve essays written by Admiral Sir Cyprian Bridge of the Royal Navy, at various times from 1898 to 1906. In these jingo days, it is refreshing to have the essential principles underlying the necessity and use of a fleet expounded by an author of such sound judgment, wide experience, and deep study. To these advantages are added a simple style and a happy knack of illustration which make the understanding of these articles as easy as their reading is agreeable. No one should venture to discuss naval history or naval strategy who is not thoroughly conversant with Sir Cyprian's contributions to these subjects.

As an appendix to the volume of collected "European and African Addresses" (Putnam), by Theodore Roosevelt, there are added the presentation speeches of the chancellor and Dr. Henry Goudy at the Oxford convocation, when the honorary degree of doctor of civil laws was conferred upon the ex-President. Lord Curzon of Kedleston thus hailed Mr. Roosevelt as he took his place for presentation:

Hic vir, hic est, quem promitti sæpius audis,
Cuius in adventum pavidi cessere cometæ
Et septemgemini turbant trepida ostia Nili!

And no less happy was he in admitting Mr. Roosevelt to the degree:

Strenuissime, insignissime, civium toto orbe terræ hodie agentium, summum ingentis reipublicæ magistratum bis incorrupte gestum, ter forsitan gesture, augustissimis regibus par, hominum domitor, beluarum ubique vastator, homo omnium humanissime, nihil a te alienum, ne nigerrimum quidem, putans, ego, auctoritate mea et totius Universitatis, admitto te ad gradum Doctoris in Iure Civili, honoris causa.

Was the chancellor, in the belief that Latin is not included in the ex-President's omniscience, indulging a sense of humor? There are in the present volume nine of Mr. Roosevelt's addresses. Several of his shorter extemporaneous speeches are omitted. Lawrence F. Abbott contributes in the preface a narrative of the trip, and an appreciation of Mr. Roosevelt.

Rarely are the letters written home by the enterprising traveller to his family of any value to others. Still more rarely are Chautauquan "Readings" of any value at all. To combine the laments and felicitations on coffee, dinners, beds, and trains dear to the one, with the sportive didacticism and ponderous colloquialisms supposed necessary to the other, and thence provide anything worth looking at twice, would be an amazing feat of literary artistry. Dr. John D. Fitz-Gerald, in his "Rambles in Spain" (Crowell) has had no such luck. His book contains all these impossible elements, and makes nothing of them but impossibility. But the illustrations, from photographs, are many and good. In combining them with Baedeker an ingenious reader could find much gain. Indeed, Dr. Fitz-Gerald confesses very fairly his own indebtedness: but who ever before called Baedeker's exactness "meticulous"?

"The World a Spiritual System" (Macmillan), by James H. Snowden, is an attempt to put into popular form the outlines of theistic idealism. The author does not claim to contribute anything new to the discussion of the ontological problems, but simply brings together, for the use of the non-technical reader, most of the views of contemporary philosophical theists. As one might expect, the resulting picture of God resembles a composite photograph of the Roycean Absolute and the old-fashioned Creator. Still, it must be said that on the whole the book presents a very readable account of a certain important metaphysical view.

"Maritime Law" (London: Effingham & Wilson), by Albert Saunders, is the second enlarged edition of a work originally published in 1901, and reprinted twice since that time. The original feature of the book is that it is in narrative form and illustrates the law on the subject by the history of a ship from and including the agreement to build her, until she becomes a total loss. It also treats of the rights and liabilities of the ship in war time and the rights and liabilities of neutrals. As a whole, the work is well done, although to an American lawyer its value is impaired by the fact that no reference is made to American cases.

The department of English and comparative literature of Columbia University has just issued a "Bibliographical Sketch of Anglo-Saxon Literature," which has been prepared by one of the department's professors. Designed to save labor in the classroom, it presents in an orderly arrangement the titles of works with which every student of the subject should be acquainted. The list does not pretend to be complete, but comprises the latest and most comprehensive references. It is divided topically, books of general bearing being followed by the special treatises on all the individual Anglo-Saxon works. Considering the enormous amount of useless articles which have been written on the literature of this early period, an authoritative guide like this will be welcomed by many a bewildered neophyte; for few professors of Anglo-Saxon take pains to give titles distinctly or to write them in more than the illegibly abbreviated form known to Germans.

A second volume completes Prof. John W. Cunliffe's edition of Gascoigne in the Cambridge English Classics (Putnam), and ends what must have been a laborious and tedious task for the editor. He has had the satisfaction of including several pamphlets which have hitherto been almost inaccessible, but none of these is of great importance. The text, as he states in the prefatory note, was set up in part from the original quartos in the Cambridge University Library, but mainly from photographs of printed pamphlets and manuscripts in the British Museum and the Bodleian. This method, taken with the tried accuracy of the Cambridge Press and of Professor Cunliffe, is assurance for a literal reproduction down to the last suspended *e* and *t*. As in all the volumes of this series, the long *s* is not used, and the confusion of *u* and *v* and of *i* and *j* is not followed. The reproductions from manuscript include "The Tale of Hemetes the Heremyte" from Royal MS. 18 A xlviii in the British Museum, and "The Grief of Joye" from Royal MS. 18 A lxi in the British Museum. "The Spoyle of Antwerpe," from the anonymous tract of 1576, is printed in an appendix. As this report to the Privy Council of the sack of Antwerp by the Spaniards is now known to be Gascoigne's, and is indeed one of the most interesting things he ever wrote, it might well have been printed in the body of the text in the larger type.

"The Political Theories of Martin Luther" (Putnam), by Luther Hess Waring, is the expansion of a thesis presented in candidacy for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the George Washington University. What parts of it constituted the original dissertation we are not informed. The method pursued appears to have been the fatal pigeon-hole process which has brought so much discredit upon the doctor fabrication of our universities from highest to lowest. There is throughout little evidence that the author has gained any such grasp upon his subject as would entitle him to express opinions about it. The merit of modesty cannot be denied him. A very large part of the book consists of quotations from other writers most impartially distributed. They range from Macaulay and Ranke to Col. Bryan as editor of the world's famous orations; and these quotations are thrown in at every turn as if they, and not the author's own studies, had been the starting-point of the book. If we may speak of a leading thesis at all, it is that Luther was the originator and inspirer of most of the ideas as to the nature, the functions, and the limits of the state which have shaped the politics of the modern world. That we hold to be an entirely indefensible thesis. There is hardly an idea in Luther's many utterances on the subject which may not be found in far more consistent and emphatic form in a long series of writers from Ockham, through Wycliffe and the leaders in the conciliar conflicts of the fifteenth century, down to Erasmus and Thomas More. Dr. Waring's defect is that of many others who have touched this subject, a lack of familiarity with the long movement of European affairs between the complete dominance of the mediæval system and its overturn in the Reformation. With no wish to dim the splendor of Luther's commanding personality or diminish ever so slightly his influence upon his time, the careful historian must warn against ascribing to him originality in ideas not really his own. Luther's enduring fame will rest upon his

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skill and tact in focussing the obvious tendencies of his day upon one supreme object—the freeing of as large a part of Germany as possible from the overgrown pretensions of the Roman religious system. He was a humane theologian, a preacher of righteousness, and a pastor to his people, not a speculative political philosopher. His utterances on political questions were invariably called forth by the practical emergencies arising from his leadership in the process of transformation through which Germany was passing. They were not, like those of Calvin, for example, the expression of a carefully worked out scheme of human government.

The Prince Society (Boston) has issued the first volume of "Colonial Currency Reprints," which will include a re-issue of all the known tracts on currency appearing in Massachusetts from 1682 to 1751, fifty-eight in number. The interest and importance of this series in history and in economics can hardly be over-estimated, for the experience of the colony in paper issues gave rise to a fruitful discussion. The beginnings of "credit," the establishment of funds by which real property came to be represented by credits, and so passed into circulation and usually into abuse, is an early chapter in banking in which Massachusetts ran through many and thorough experiments. The real scarcity of a circulating medium furnished an excuse for resorting to expedients that, in the hands of oppressed debtors, only increased the evil conditions and imposed a heavy tax upon the creditor and the community.

The editor of this series, Andrew McF. Davis, has passed many years in the study of certain phases of this question, and has already published an elaborate history of currency and banking in Massachusetts. He now submits the sources from which he drew his material, and no one could be better equipped for the task. His introduction traces the history of the subject from the first fund of 1681, which was intended to benefit a small company of men constituting the "fundors," by a form of bills of exchange, to the final redemption and disappearance of provincial bills of credit, under which the credit of the colony had been so greatly affected. It is rather suggestive to find the first steps in this progress limited to a "credit with discreet men," but little time passed before the "bank of credit," pure and simple, with an undefined basis of substantial property or of discreet men behind it, was proposed; and from that to the use of individual or government credit without actual property behind it, and having a forced circulation, was a simple process, controlled, as it was, by the needs or interests of the borrower. It is all the more suggestive that such a scheme for a real paper currency, intended to take the place of coin, arose at a time when the charter of the colony had been annulled, and its political affairs were in confusion; also, that the first serious plan involved some of the leading names in official circles, as well as some business men, and that the expected high profits were to be shared among those who had the power to give or deny the recognition and endorsement of government. In fact, Blackwell's bank plan of 1686 savors much of modern methods in finance and in politics. That bank never went into operation, and mere discussion ended and practice began with the issue of bills of credit by the colony in 1690, to meet the cost of the expedition against Quebec. Having tasted of the ease in postponing payment of current charges, the government entered upon the practice of issuing bills for meeting its expenses, and of redeeming them out of the proceeds of taxes in future years. Silver disappeared from circulation, the bills depreciated, and from 1714 the discussion of causes and remedies was active. This volume, containing sixteen of the issues, carries the question to 1721. The elaborate bibliographical notes of the editor and his evident mastery of the subject promise to make this series of volumes unique in the history of early experiences in credit currency.

In "Beyond the Mexican Sierras" (McClurg), Dillon Wallace, the author of a recent book on Labrador, has given an account of a trip from San Francisco down the coast to Sinaloa and Tepic in 1907. Mr. Wallace has a pleasant journalistic style, and has acquired the usual newspaper man's conceptions about the great harm which the Spaniards did to the unfortunate aborigines. Students of Mexican affairs are already quite familiar with this type of traveller, but it may cause a smile that any one should still be found to assert that the Indians were forced under pain of death "to relinquish their old ideas of morality and religion and accept instead bigotry, sensualism, and superstition." As long as American writers persist in thus misjudging the work of Spanish civilization, just so long will American readers be unable to understand and appreciate the present conditions of Latin American society. The author also indulges in the usual panegyrics about Diaz: "The most remarkable man in the world." It is a pity that so few writers are able to adopt an unbiased, well-balanced view towards the great Mexican dictator. In general, Mr. Wallace spins the customary traveller's yarn, like any other garrulous wanderer making his first trip to the tropics. He is tremendously impressed with the moist heat, the poor food, the dirt, and the insects. He cannot speak the language, but he does not hesitate to treat everything with frank criticism. His work will naturally be referred to by those who are contemplating a journey down the west coast, either by steamer or over the newly completed extension of the Southern Pacific Railroad; but any one familiar with Mexico, outside of the big cities, will find little that is new and much that is commonplace. Abominable Spanish spelling and too much minute personal detail are faults which are only partly relieved by such pleasing discoveries as the following: "I arose, and looking to the north saw the Great Dipper and Polaris just above the horizon and knew that morning was near, for in that latitude Polaris is visible only in the morning." The illustrations are very attractive.

The monthly publication of statistics which summarize a city's activity in all branches of public service is a recently established Italian custom worthy of a greater following in America. The *Bollettino Statistico Mensile* of Padua, a commune of 66,000 inhabitants, is a well-printed, small folio pamphlet, usually of about twenty pages of statistical tables, without other explanatory text than that supplied by occasional foot-notes. In the month under consideration, the Weather Bureau reports "a slight shock of earthquake." The tables analyzing the vital statistics include two which indicate where death has left minors as public charges, and cases where minors are likely to become public charges, and where the law makes special provision for their guardianship. The tables on sanitation and hygiene indicate a well-developed system of care for the public health. There are interesting details of preventive and curative measures in regard to tuberculosis; and there are the statistics of pellagra, which, including the rural sections of the commune, show over a thousand persons in such a condition as to claim a free distribution of salt, so taxed by the state that its purchase is impossible by the very poor. At the same time, among the hills of more prosperous Tuscany, Florence reported a single death from pellagra, that of a non-resident. The prevalence of this disease involves a not inconsiderable expense for inspecting flour and grain, a commodity also so subject to taxation that purchasers are found even for what has been ruined by blight or storage. In spite of its rich soil, Italy has not yet learned how to raise enough grain to supply home consumption.

Padua shows itself to be a progressive city, possessing a Pasteur Institute, exercising a medical supervision over licensed wet-nurses, and over infants nursed artificially at the commune's expense. Its sanitary inspection extends to private as well as public schools, and cares for the health of children in the elementary schools, to whom it furnishes luncheons, "gratuitous, semi-gratuitous, and paid," in an interesting variety of forms. In the chemical and microscopical examination of foods, the analysis of water, its bacteriological laboratory, the supervision of public baths, of the municipal slaughter-houses, and of horses used in street cabs, it is abreast of the times. Padua possesses a communal library, a people's library, beside one in the suburb of Ponte di Brenta, and a teachers' library in its Department of Education. The number of readers of books and manuscripts reported by the Biblioteca Comunale in the month of July was 71, and the total for seven months of the year, not excluding repetitions, was 1,483, while in the Biblioteca Popolare Comunale di Città, the readers in July were 523, with a total of 4,271 for seven months. This difference in patronage is due to the fact that the communal libraries in Italy are generally old institutions, administered in the interests of the leisured classes, and are accessible, as a rule, only at hours and under conditions generally prohibitive for those employed during the ordinary working hours of the day. People's libraries are of recent growth, open on evenings and holidays, and consist of books specially chosen with regard to the supposed requirements of the working classes.

"Europe since 1815," by C. D. Hazen (Holt), is a valuable new college textbook on the history of the nineteenth century. It has over seven hundred pages of text, fourteen good maps, and excellent critical bibliographies. In arrangement of material the author has rather neatly

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steered between the Scylla of a strictly chronological treatment, in which a dozen different countries are kept moving side by side to the bewilderment of the student, and the Charybdis of a purely topical treatment which too often results in nothing but a dozen different histories of as many different countries. The author brings down together the histories of Austria, Prussia, France, and Italy; then he returns to the starting point, 1815, and traces the histories of England, Russia, Turkey, and the lesser states. The fact that the period prior to 1870 fills no more than half the volume shows that Professor Hazen is properly aware that the new generations ought to know what has been happening in the last forty years in the Far East, in Africa, and in the colonial world, as well as in western Europe since the unification of Italy and Germany. Professor Hazen's narrative is accurate, scholarly, and interesting. At times it even has a literary flavor. But many passages, especially in the first half of the volume, could with advantage have been made more brief, definite, and crisp, by a freer use of the blue pencil.

The treasures of the papyri that have been made accessible to the general student have up to now been restricted mainly to the literary fragments. We have had Timotheus and Bacchylides, and Professor Capps has just edited four plays of Menander. But of the many thousands of unliterary papyri we have had only general and unsatisfactory accounts. Dr. Milligan's "Selections from the Greek Papyri" (Putnams) is accordingly a timely volume. After a brief but comprehensive sketch of the history of the various discoveries, we have a selection of fifty-five papyri texts varying in length from a few lines to a couple of pages, extending from 310 B. C. to the fifth century A. D. The contents are equally varied. There are marriage contracts, a letter of Epicurus to a child, letters of introduction, private family letters, dreams, incantations, census notices, law suits, invitations to dinner, an impudent letter of a boy to his father, etc. In many cases the writers are very illiterate and the spelling is obviously phonetic. The vagaries of syntax are often most remarkable—features which make them extremely valuable for scientific study. Dr. Milligan is interested mainly in the light which such documents throw on the language of the New Testament, but the book is valuable for the ordinary teacher of Greek, in bringing home to his classes the human side of Greek life. A translation is appended to every fragment. These are not always accurate, but sometimes the text is obscure, and the peculiar syntax makes the meaning uncertain. The commentary is too brief and is filled mainly with quotations from the New Testament, to the number of nearly 500. Much more attention could well be given in the notes to linguistic matters, and in cases of great illiteracy the text might well be rewritten in normal Greek. The section on language in the introduction is inadequate, and the assistance of the translation still leaves many difficulties unexplained. But in spite of these defects the book fills a real need.

The death is announced, in his eighty-fifth year, of Canon William Ince, regius professor of divinity at Oxford since 1878. He wrote "Some Aspects of Christian Truth" and "Religion in the University of Oxford."

George Frederick Seward, financier and statesman, and nephew of William H. Seward, Lincoln's secretary of state, died last Monday at his home in New York city in his seventy-first year. At the age of twenty-one he entered public life, going as consul to Shanghai. In 1864, he was made consul-general of the United States for all China, and from 1876 to 1880 he was United States minister to China. For his service there he received the order of the Knights of Dannebrog from Denmark, and from France that of the Dragon of Annam. As an author he wrote on "Chinese Immigration in Its Social and Economical Aspects," "System of Taxation of New York," and other kindred topics.

Science.

Sweet Peas. By Horace J. Wright. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co. 65 cts. net.

Pansies, Violas, and Violets. By William Cuthbertson. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co. 65 cts. net.

About half a billion sweet pea seeds, weighing forty tons, are distributed every year by British growers alone! Twelve books on this flower have been printed in the English language, besides the Report of the Sweet Pea Bicentenary, and England also has had, since 1905, a Sweet Pea Annual. In view of such facts, one cannot but agree with Mr. Cuthbertson that the sweet pea is the first garden flower of the present day. It owes this popularity partly to its fragrance, partly to the wide range of color, and the recent amazing improvements in tints, details of form, length of stem, and size and number of flowers. Although first introduced into England from Sicily in the seventeenth century, it was not till forty years ago, when Henry Eckford began to devote his life to the improvement of this flower, that its possibilities in the way of varied beauty began to be recognized. He not only originated some seventy new varieties, but in the case of most of them he had the patience to fix them, so that there was no danger of reversion to the types which he had used in hybridizing. Hence, most of the Eckford varieties come true. Not so with the Countess Spencer varieties, which were first shown ten years ago. They created a sensation because both the standards and the wings of the flower were beautifully waved; but they were put on the market in too great haste, wherefore, to the present day, the purchaser of Spencer seeds cannot always feel sure of what they will grow up into. A third type, known as the Unwin, appeared in the same year as the Countess Spencer; its standard and wings are almost as much, and quite as gracefully, waved, but Mr. Unwin held back his creations for fixation, and the Spencer type thus won the race.

More than five hundred varieties of sweet peas are obtainable, and yet the public clamors for more. "The raiser of new varieties finds many swans; the grower who purchases them finds geese, and wretchedly poor ones at that," says Mr. Wright; yet he would by no means discourage the quest after further novelties; we have not yet got the true yellow or the true blue flower, and as long as we have not these delightful colors there is plenty of room for experimenting. The exquisite primrose tint of the Clara Curtis, of which there is a reproduction in color in Mr. Wright's book, fosters the hope that a deeper yellow may soon be found. There are seven other colored plates of particularly beautiful varieties, and in one of his chapters the author gives a list of fifty desirable kinds to cultivate. The bulk of his attractive and useful book is given up to directions concerning cultivating, manuring, thinning, mulching, spring and autumn seeding, raising flowers for exhibitions, etc.

No less ornamental and useful is Mr. Cuthbertson's book on pansies. The pansy, as we know it, is as modern as the improved sweet pea, and quite as many men have spent their lives in originating new varieties. Sixty years ago only one kind of pansy was grown in Great Britain; to-day their number is legion, and in popularity this flower is second only to the sweet pea. It was found that by giving the common Heart's-ease good cultivation and selecting seeds from the best kinds year after year, it could be greatly improved in size and color; later the hybridizer applied his subtle arts and a new world of floral beauty resulted. He is still busy, for there is plenty of room for new colors, markings, and details of form. One of the most interesting chapters is concerned with the difficulties the hybridizers have to contend with in preventing diverse insects from spoiling their well-laid plans. Mr. Cuthbertson traces the history and development of violas and violets as well as of pansies, besides giving cultural directions. There is a calendar for the pansy-grower, showing what should be done each month in the year, and there are eight colored plates of choice varieties.

"Food Inspection" (Van Nostrand), by Hugh A. Macewen, is a rather elementary book for general information, and to aid intending inspectors to obtain the knowledge required for the prescribed examinations. The text is pretty well adapted to these ends, and a number of excellent illustrations add to the beauty and usefulness of the book. The first part deals with meat, as seen in the abattoir, treating in

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moderate detail of what it is necessary to know in order to carry out an inspection. The next section is devoted to the construction and management of slaughter-houses, with a rather brief account of two British establishments. Appendices summarize the method of inspection adopted in Germany, and also the conduct of slaughter-houses and packing houses in Chicago, where the conditions were found to be much better than the author expected them to be, although he thinks that there is still room for improvement, and considers the inspection efficient for the grosser forms of disease, but otherwise decidedly inadequate. The remaining sections treat of the inspection of other kinds of flesh foods, of vegetables and fruits, and also of the methods by which various foods are preserved and stored. All this is almost too concise. Brief, also, is the abstract of the laws relating to food inspection, and here, of course, British conditions are alone considered.

Octave Chanute, who has been called by some "the father of the aeroplane," died in Chicago on Wednesday of last week. When he began experiments with "horizontal kites," as they were ironically referred to, several years ago, he was considered eccentric. His persistence in trying out his ideas resulted, however, in the Chanute glider, which was the modern biplane without the engine. With it Mr. Chanute was able to glide several hundred yards in a strong wind by manipulation of its wings. He was born in Paris on February 18, 1832, and arrived in America with his parents in 1838. He was once chief engineer of the Erie Railroad, and had been an officer or honorary member of the British Institute of Civil Engineers, Canadian Society of Civil Engineers, American Society of Civil Engineers, and the Western Society of Engineers. His scientific researches into methods for improving railway service made him one of the distinguished engineers of his day, a plan to preserve railway ties by soaking them in creosote having been one of his latest contributions to his favorite field of engineering. He was the builder of the Kansas Pacific Railway, the Union Stock Yards of Chicago, and the Missouri River Bridge. In the field of aeronautics, his ideas were only recognized as sane after the Wrights had made their first flights, and had acknowledged that it was Chanute's book, "Progress in Flying Machines," published in 1894, which had turned their attention toward the heavier-than-air experiments. The Wrights gave him credit for working out the engineering problems involved in building successful aeroplanes, and in blazing the trail toward a practicable machine.

Drama.

Memories and Impressions of Helena Modjeska. New York: The Macmillan Co. $4 net.

This is an interesting and valuable book, interesting for its self-revelation of a fine and highly gifted personality and valuable for the light it throws upon the true secret of the writer's brilliant artistic success. It is a record of unwearied energy, indefatigable industry, dauntless courage, and high ambition tempered by modest self-distrust. From the egotism which is the distinguishing mark of most theatrical autobiographies it is almost entirely free. If it is occasionally somewhat over-exuberant or effusive, somewhat overladen with insignificant detail, it is in the main the work of a rarely clever, sane, and observant woman who had a singularly wide experience of the higher artistic, literary, and social life of two continents, and was capable of profiting by it.

It is not possible, of course, to discuss here the memories of more than fifty years, especially when they were so crowded as those of Helena Modjeska. That she was endowed naturally with histrionic genius of a high order no one who saw her act could ever doubt, but the troublous scenes of her adventurous childhood probably had much to do with her sanguine and imaginative temperament. She was reared amid surroundings of fierce political excitement, of national fury and despair, of revolution and bloodshed, of conflagration and ruin. With Hungarian and Polish blood in her veins, with an education half-religious and half-Bohemian, now running wild in romantic scenery, now subjected to strict domestic restraint, but always associating with young literary and artistic patriots on fire with the spirit of romance and liberty, it is not strange that even in early girlhood she should have dreamed of future triumphs on the stage. Her leisure hours were devoted to private theatricals, to recitations of Polish poetry, and to song. An occasional visit to the theatre added fire to her dramatic enthusiasm, which was encouraged by her half-brother, Felix Benda, already an actor of some note. And so, in spite of maternal opposition, she began, at the very bottom of the theatrical ladder, as an amateur. Then she passed through a brief period of barn-storming, and finally, attracting attention, obtained an engagement in the theatre at Cracow. There for three years she labored incessantly, playing every variety of character from pages up. While still in her teens she had won a provincial reputation as Ophelia, Doña Sol, and Adrienne Lecouvreur. From the moment of her first acquaintance with "Hamlet" she became a lifelong worshipper of Shakespeare, and one of her earliest triumphs was achieved in Juliet, to which she had devoted months of study. Her analysis of this character shows her conscientious methods of work.

Soon she was able to make a flying visit to Paris, where she saw many of the most famous actors of the Français and other theatres. Of their stage business, she says, she can report nothing, for she paid no attention to it. What she did admire was their capacity for identifying themselves with the characters of the play and the precision of their expression and delivery. Of the so-called Delsartean system she speaks with brief contempt; Delsarte, she remarks, never taught or left any. His methods were peculiar to himself, and would not suit anybody else. Her stellar career—which need not be followed—virtually began with her great triumph as Adrienne Lecouvreur in the subsidized Warsaw Theatre, of which she soon became the brightest ornament. The incidents in that career long ago became matters of dramatic history and cannot be related here. But her own account of them, of her associate players, of the intrigues before and behind the curtain, of the Russian censorship, and the whole system of management, is peculiarly fresh and interesting. Her intimacy with the director, M. Mouchanoff, and especially with his liberally minded wife, was of the greatest value to her, not only artistically—by granting her a wider scope than the strict law of the censorship would have allowed—but socially—by bringing her into contact with the inner circle of the aristocracy, great political and diplomatic personages, and leaders in the musical, literary, and artistic worlds. Her friendships, which in later years were to include many of the most distinguished men and women in England and in the United States, supply some of the most interesting pages of her book.

And to this cosmopolitan acquaintance, coupled with her constant study of German, French, and English literature, must be attributed, doubtless, much of the breadth of observation and soundness of judgment which she displays. Her criticisms of theatrical art and affairs are marked by fulness of knowledge and most kindly though judicious temper. She is liberal in praise, and emphatic, though moderate, in condemnation. Of the stock-company system she is an enthusiastic advocate. The experience of a lifetime convinced her that it is the only school in which the best acting can be found. The company at Warsaw—in which she was trained—was comparable, she declares, in all respects with that of the Français in the famous days of Bernhardt, Coquelin, Got, Delaunay, and the rest. Elsewhere she records her deliberate conviction that the Italians are the greatest actors in the world, and Tommaso Salvini the nonpareil of his time. To Ristori also she awards a lofty pedestal. In Duse she discerns genius and infinite fascination, while disagreeing with some of her ultra-realistic methods. Of Edwin Booth she speaks with affectionate admiration, as the greatest of American tragedians and a charming friend. She was vanquished, she intimates, by Irving's personality, rather than his art. The finish of Charles Coghlan's acting

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appealed to her greatly, and she has discriminating praise for many other American actors living and dead. The whole modern syndicate system she regards as pernicious and abominable, fatal to all artistic growth.

It was a change in the directorship of the Warsaw Theatre that was the immediate cause of her migration to this country, and of the political persecution that afterward prevented her from acting in her native land. Her career in America is too well-known to need more than this passing allusion. But few of her admirers, perhaps, realize the trials and obstacles which this Polish actress had to overcome before she realized her youthful ambition of triumphing in Shakespeare on the English stage. They are all set down in this book, and constitute an engrossing and instructive story.

"Henry of Navarre," one of the most successful romantic plays produced in England for some years, was presented in the Knickerbocker Theatre here on Monday evening, by Fred Terry and his wife, Julia Neilson, and proved to be a fairly effective stage piece of little literary or dramatic quality. The general nature of it is fully accounted for by the fact that its author, William Devereux, is, or has been, an actor. All the paraphernalia and apparatus employed are to the last degree stagey. The story tells of the wooing, the estrangement and reconciliation of Henry and Marguerite de Valois, and the intrigues against the Huguenots, culminating in the massacre of St. Bartholomew, Catherine de' Medici operates in it by means of dagger, forgery, and poison, while her astrologer, Ruggieri, alternately abets and confounds her to suit his own purposes. In the end, of course, Henry, a prodigy of astuteness, courage, and gallantry, triumphs over all obstacles and enemies, though the groans of the slaughtered Huguenots supply his nuptial chorus. There is plenty of bustling movement and tense situation, but the extravagance or awkwardness of much of the play, and the manifest artificiality of all of it, prevent it from having much value as romance. Fred Terry, although his Henry is almost entirely fictitious, makes an attractive and plausible figure of him, by his vivacious, varied, virile, and consistent acting. Without him the representation would fall flat. Miss Neilson is a lovely, but self-conscious, and, therefore, unsympathetic Marguerite. Several of the subordinate characters are in very feeble hands, but, as a body, the company show a good appreciation of the needs of romantic drama and play with a coöperative vitality such as is seldom displayed upon the local stage.

All the younger American dramatists just now seem to be infected by the delusion that extravagance is synonymous with strength. The "Two Women" which Rupert Hughes has written for Mrs. Leslie Carter, and which was produced in the Lyric Theatre on Tuesday evening, is a drama of passion in which crude vulgarity, mock sentiment, and contempt for common sense are exhibited in nearly equal proportions. But it contains clever work here and there, and indicates a quick sense of theatrical effect. A poor artist marries a little sempstress who proves a paragon of purity and devotion, and dies pathetically of want and work at the moment when fortune is within his grasp. Rich, he encounters her double in a woman long sunk in the lowest depths of moral degradation and hires her to sit as a model for a painting of his departed saint. The sinner is converted by the subtle influence of the dead woman, learns to love her employer, and, after nursing him through a dangerous sickness, wins his heart. The drama ends with their union and the proclamation of the trite fallacy that character is only the child of opportunity. Mrs. Leslie Carter embodies both women, and is fairly successful as the lurid wanton, but fails in the angelic part owing to the artificiality of her style. In voluble, ranting passion she is as vigorous as ever. The play is incredible in incident and its sentiment is claptrap.

"Dickens and the Drama," a book by S. J. Adair Fitz-Gerald, explaining Dickens's connection with the stage, and commenting on his plays and the dramatization of his novels, is promised by Chapman & Hall.

Early in December Miss Lena Ashwell will leave London for New York, in order to appear in C. M. S. McLellan's drama, "Judith Zaraine." Her stay here is not likely to be long, as she has arranged for her reappearance at the London Kingsway fairly early in the coming year. She will there be seen in a new play by H. V. Esmond, called "The House of Ussher." It has only five characters, and all the action passes in the same scene. The main interest of the story is centred in a father and his daughter, the latter a young girl whose existence and character have been adversely affected by the sordid atmosphere in which she moves. Suddenly she begins to realize that "there is a soul of goodness in things evil," and thenceforward she devotes her energies to fostering what is best in those by whom she is surrounded.

The directors of a London hall have been negotiating with Sir Herbert Tree for the right of making cinematographic reproductions of scenes from "Henry VIII," as they are now presented in His Majesty's Theatre. Sir Herbert has given his assent on condition that the films shall first be approved by him. The scenes selected for treatment are Wolsey's entrance, the trial of Queen Katherine, and the coronation ceremony. This seems to open up a new phase of theatrical enterprise and advertisement.

Miss Gertrude Kingston announces that "Just to Get Married," produced at the Little Theatre in London recently, with considerable success, is by Miss Cicely Hamilton, the authoress of "Diana of Dobson's." The authoress of "The Merciful Soul," presented on the same evening, is Miss L. Alma-Tadema.

George Riddle, one of the most widely known public readers in this country, died suddenly in Boston on Saturday. In 1874 he acted in support of the Brutus of Edwin Booth, being the first alumnus of Harvard to adopt a stage career. Mr. Riddle first attracted the attention of the educated public in the early eighties by his revival of the "Œdipus Tyrannus" in the original Greek. A performance in Booth's Theatre was witnessed by one of the most notable audiences ever assembled in this city. For several years he taught elocution in Harvard University. Then he devoted himself to public reading, in which he achieved considerable success.

Music.

Selected Piano Compositions by Johannes Brahms. Edited by Rafael Joseffy. Boston: Oliver Ditson Co. $1.50.

Songs from the Operas for Tenor. Edited by H. E. Krehbiel. Boston: Oliver Ditson Co. $1.50.

After Rafael Joseffy had won fame and popularity by playing Chopin, Liszt, and Schumann, he tried for several years to enchant the public with the pieces of Johannes Brahms, but found, it is needless to say, a less ready response to his new pianistic pleadings. *Post hoc*, and possibly *propter hoc*—for he loves Brahms dearly—he retired from the concert platform at a time when his powers of interpretation were at their best. All efforts to entice him back have failed, but, luckily, the Oliver Ditson Company has succeeded, at any rate, in persuading him to take other pianists into his confidence and let everybody know what he considers the best twenty of Brahms's scores for his instrument. The result is a volume which will undoubtedly appeal to all who like "the musical Browning"; and possibly it may make some converts. It includes the Scherzo, opus 4; the Sonata in F minor, opus 5; the four Ballades, opus 10; the Variations on a Hungarian Theme, op. 21; the 16 waltzes of op. 39; the 8 Capriccios and Intermezzos of opus 76; the two Rhapsodies, op. 79; and a Gluck Gavotte arranged by Brahms.

James Huneker, who is as ardent a Brahmsite as Mr. Joseffy, admits, in the preface contributed by him to this volume, that Brahms may sound chilly and formal, and that he resembles certain people that we meet and dislike at first sight; "but strip him of his harsh rind, taste the richness of the musical fruit, and your indifference will be transformed into admiration, perhaps love." Mr. Huneker admits that Brahms is not "a surpassingly original melodist," and he does not deny the accusation of "muddiness and heaviness of the doubled basses in his piano compositions." Liking them is, he says, a matter of taste. Taking that attitude, it is only another step for him to deny the charge that Brahms does not write in the true idiom of the pianoforte. But attempts to prove that this composer is sensuously attractive, or emotional, or romantic, must always fail; they fail even in the hands of so clever a dialectician as Mr. Huneker. From the technical and intel-

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lectual points of view, on the other hand, too much cannot be said in favor of Brahms. He is, indeed, the greatest variationist since Bach and Beethoven; his complicated rhythms are a source of endless wonder and delight to serious students, and many love him for his harking back to old classical and even mediæval methods of composition. To thousands of music-lovers the intellectual side of music appeals more strongly than any other; to them chiefly this volume of piano pieces will make its appeal.

One of the peccadilloes of the lovers of intellectual music is a professed scorn for opera. "It is the still small voice discerned in a Brahms adagio," writes Mr. Huneker, "that abides by us and consoles when the music of the opera seems garish and superficial." Similar opinions are often uttered by Henry Edward Krehbiel, though he has written many books—very good and pleasant books, too—about operas and their makers, quite ignoring the concert hall. The latest product of his pen belongs, like the volume just spoken of, to the admirably edited and printed Musicians' Library. It includes twenty-nine songs from the operas of twenty-one composers. Gluck and Verdi are each represented by two operas, Gounod by three, Wagner by four; the other masters being Purcell, Galuppi, Sacchini, Cimarosa, Mozart, Méhul, Beethoven, Boieldieu, Weber, Meyerbeer, Rossini, Donizetti, Thomas, Ponchielli, Bizet, Massenet, Mascagni.

In making collections of this sort it is customary to select a given number of airs and transpose them for the different voices, often to their detriment. Instead of following this objectionable practice, Mr. Krehbiel has taken pains to search the operatic literature of three centuries for gems written specially for soprano, mezzo-soprano, alto, and tenor, to which, doubtless, a further volume of songs for bass will be added. The selections bear evidence to the editor's comprehensive knowledge and his catholicity of taste, and in the comments on the songs there is much historic and miscellaneous information calculated to stimulate interest in them. The expression *bête comme un ténor* is no longer generally applicable; a century ago it would probably have been foolish to issue a volume with an erudite preface for the edification of a species of singers concerning whom Hans von Bülow once said: "A tenor is not a voice but a disease."

The Chicago Opera Company gave during its first two weeks five performances to sold-out houses, and the other audiences were marked as good, so that there was a balance on the right side. This is gratifying in view of the fact that, to quote the *Musical Leader*:

So far as the actual musical public is concerned, it is estimated that the number which might be termed the "concert-going public" will not exceed 10,000, while the "opera-going public" is about 25,000. Those are figures as given by men who have made a study of conditions in and around Chicago, and who for years past have been connected with the business of concert and opera production.

The MacDowell Chorus of Peterboro, N. H., which was the nucleus of the historic pageant last summer, has been endowed and put on a permanent financial basis. E. G. Hood of Nashua has been engaged as its conductor.

The Committee of the Society of German Musicians have decreed that a festival shall be held next year to celebrate the centenary of the birth of Liszt. Further particulars have not been given out, save the statement that, owing to the absence of a suitable hall, the performance will not take place at Weimar, with which town Liszt was most prominently associated.

The Rev. Frederick H. Jacobs, often known as the singing evangelist, who for years conducted the Fulton Street Noonday Prayer Meeting, toured with Dwight L. Moody, and later carried on his work abroad, died on Thanksgiving Day, at the age of fifty-five.

Art.

POST-IMPRESSIONISM.

LONDON, November 19.

England has discovered the "Post-Impressionists," the name, it seems, by which the most prominent supporters of *Les Indépendants* and the *Salon d'Automne* in Paris are now to be known. London, had it chosen, could long ago have discovered them, several of the group having been already shown in the exhibitions of the International Society, where, for a while, in its best days, all that was most promising and individual in the art of the Continent had a place. But London, only beginning to draw breath after its startled discovery of the romanticists and impressionists, needed something more than a few pictures in one annual exhibition to realize that the art world in Paris does not stand still, whatever is the rule on this side of the Channel.

The "something more" takes the form of the representative exhibition just opened in the Grafton Gallery, in which the new movement, as it is called, can be studied from Manet, rather illogically included, to Matisse. The amusing part of it is that this really interesting collection is not the venture of a few sympathetic artists here or of enterprising French dealers, who have usually been responsible for such daring departures in the past, but is given with, I might say, official sanction: for its honorary and executive committees include the keepers of the National Gallery, the Wallace Collection, and the King's Pictures; the directors of the National Portrait Gallery and two or three provincial galleries; writers like Herbert Cook and Roger Fry, who hitherto have identified themselves with masters accredited by time; and the more or less distinguished people who lend their names to any approved scheme for the encouragement of art. The artists may be independent at home in France, but in England they appear under the most correct and conventional patronage. And though the British public, unabashed by this patronage, laughs in front of the pictures, the British critics, with one or two exceptions, are respectful, even enthusiastic: frankly afraid to be again caught napping. I have already pointed out in the *Nation* how this fear leads them to exalt into a master any one of the younger men in England who reveals the slightest personality in his work. And so, in the Grafton Gallery, they are ready at least to suspect genius everywhere. In the old days they laughed at the Pre-Raphaelites, and Millais and Holman Hunt to-day lie in St. Paul's: therefore it may be wise to take Van Gogh seriously. They ridiculed Whistler, and he now is ranked high with the elect: for which reason it would probably be safer, anyway, to honor Matisse without delay. Manet's Olympia was received with derision, and to-day hangs in the Louvre; who knows if that may not be the fate of Gaugain's nude—*L'Esprit Veille*—the brown woman of Tahiti stretched out upon her bed of white, with its barbaric ornament? The artists represented are said to be revolutionary. But revolution, if there is any, is rather on the part of the British authorities and critics who have actually dared to abandon their old safe policy of sitting tight in seasons of doubt.

As to the exhibition, it is, as I have said, interesting, but it would be no great novelty or innovation to anybody who has followed recent movements and developments among artists in France. The work of some of the exhibitors, Matisse, for instance, is, I fancy, far better known by this time in New York than in London. The interest really is in the work itself, though far more is made of the artists' theories and principles by their British critics and would-be admirers. The artists are praised for their wish to escape tradition and assert their own personality, which is, we are told, the creed of the Post-Impressionists. But no artist to-day can escape tradition, though he may defy it; to express his own individuality has been the aim of every artist since the world began. Certainly, there is no escape from tradition, no genuine attempt to escape in this series of pictures and drawings. They are the work of sound draughtsmen and well-trained technicians. It might almost be thought it was to emphasize the fact of the modern artist's subservience to tradition that Manet, who really has no business here, is included. There is a fair collection of

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his pictures, shortly, I understand, to figure in the salesroom. They hang in the first gallery, together with several by Cézanne, and the most important are so well-known that it would be more than useless for me to describe them—Un Bar aux Folies-Bergères, Au Café, La Promenade—and they show, as all Manet's work does, that in whatever personal way he may have chosen to express himself, he brought to the expression a due reverence for the past, for the inheritance of knowledge and law (a very different thing from academic convention) which had come down to him through many and distinguished generations of artists. But, indeed, the men who were Manet's contemporaries were all careful to begin by studying the old masters as well as nature.

Fortunately, a number of Cézanne's pictures—landscapes, still-life, and portraits—are exhibited. Whether you like his work or not, you must recognize its seriousness; usually it interests and often impresses you. There is no mistaking its individuality, for the simple reason that he had an individuality to infuse into it, without the effort too obvious in the work of some of his followers. He strove for simplicity. He eliminated the unessential until, in his landscapes, a large stretch of country like his Paysage St. Cloud or his sombre and impressive Les Maisons is reduced to an arrangement of the lines of the composition rather than the planes which so preoccupy most modern landscape painters; until in his portraits, as in the Madame Cézanne, the figure and even the hangings of the background become sculpturesque; until in his still-life the fruit, the table linen, or whatever it may be, seems carved rather than painted. But in none of these is there any going back to the elemental, to the primitive attitude of the primitive artist; in none is there any endeavor to escape from all that has been learned and achieved since the first rough scratchings of the pre-historic draughtsman on the walls of his cave. It took all the centuries that have intervened to make just this work possible, centuries of rebels, if rebellion in art means the ambition of the artist to master tradition that he may carry it on still further.

It is the same when it comes to the men of a later generation. Here is Maurice Denis, with his Calypso and Orphée. They are not primitive, in the elementary sense, as enthusiasts would have us believe all the pictures of these modern Frenchmen are. Only a fine draughtsman and a fine technician, with generations of fine drawing and technique behind him, could have designed them. But they have been simplified until only the rhythmical lines of the composition remain, only the conventionalized distribution of the spaces of color—though convention is a term Denis and the others might scorn. It is the same with Matisse, in whose Femme aux Yeux Verts the modelling disappears and the figure, a half-length, and the bases behind it arrange themselves into a purely decorative composition. And so it is with many of the others. Indeed, in their presence the student who came unprepared, having heard nothing of their theories and principles, would never for a minute imagine they were striving to return to primitive conditions in art, but would conclude, rather, that their chief object is to perfect a new decorative formula based on Puvis de Chavannes, and all that Puvis derived by sympathetic study from the great decorations of the early Italians; though they bring to this work a self-consciousness that at times threatens to plunge them into deliberate eccentricity. Matisse's Lady with the Green Eyes does not belong by rights to a small panel shut in by a frame, nor do Denis's scenes from the Odyssey: they might be so many fragments of so many different schemes for mural decoration.

This is not quite so true of Van Gogh and Gaugain, to both of whom a great deal of space is devoted at the Grafton. Van Gogh, as seen here, is, if anything, more concerned with pictorial than decorative problems. His great bunches of iris or of sun-flowers, his tall autumn-tinged trees against the green landscape, his reminiscences of Rembrandt and of Delacroix, his country near Arles, all keep their place within the frame, and none more so than his little canvas of Les Usines, with the line of wonderfully put-in red roofs between fields and sky. Others of his pictures now shown have the vigor less of primitiveness than of madness, and, in both the famous Berceuse and the portrait of Dr. Gachet, Van Gogh's devoted friend and patron, the force which cannot be denied is pushed beyond the limits of the sane in art, into morbidness and exaggeration. The few expressive lines with which the figure of the Berceuse is suggested and the flat space of green made by her apron are in strong contrast to the carefully worked-out, flower-strewn background; while the color scheme of the Dr. Gachet, in its full blues and whites, and the rendering of character in the face, seem to emphasize the violent directness of the technique and the touch of grotesqueness in the treatment of the head. The fame of Van Gogh has been, perhaps, unduly inflated of late years, some say for reasons which are not difficult to guess, but, thanks to much of the work he left, work done in his calmer moments, it will surely outlive the present vogue. To be honest, I must admit that Gaugain makes no appeal to me. It may be my loss, but I can see in his distorted figures, his muddy color, his composition, his technique, neither the charm nor the strength that gives me sometimes pleasure, and always claims my interest, in the work of Van Gogh and Cézanne, of Maurice Denis and Matisse.

Besides these artists, Seurat, Signac, and Cross are represented in pictures that push the technique of Claude Monet to its extreme in *pointillisme;* Picasso, in one picture—a nude holding a basket of red flowers, in profile against a blue background that has dignity and grace and is almost academic in comparison to his other and probably later work; and also Vallotton, whom I never find as successful in color as in black-and-white; Odilon Redon, but not too characteristically; and such less talked about men as Laprade, Vlaminck, Derain, Herbin. There are a few drawings, those by Matisse explaining what a masterly draughtsman he is. There are also a few bronzes by Matisse and Maillol, with a distinct character, but with a certain eccentricity in the forms, an undue emphasis in the modelling, that seem like deliberate exaggerations. The difficulty nowadays is that the most accomplished artist must doubt whether charm, refinement, and beauty, whether the exquisite surface and splendid serenity, that were the old roads to success and fame, can assure his triumph under modern conditions and in modern exhibitions. This doubt may have possibly as much to do with some of the later developments in art as the synthesis and primitiveness and expression of personal emotion which the preface to the catalogue of the present exhibition ascribes to the Post-Impressionists. If they were less artists, and less well-trained artists, all the theorizing in the world could not make them the interesting painters many of them are. N. N.

"One Hundred Masterpieces" is a book by the late John La Farge, which is shortly to be brought out by Doubleday, Page & Company.

The summer school of Harvard University announces a course on Turner and the landscape painting of his time, to be given in London next summer by Prof. Arthur Pope. This is an innovation in the teaching of the subject of fine arts in Harvard University, and means an opportunity to study original works directly, instead of by means of photographic reproductions. The course will begin July 5 and end August 15, and will be open to women as well as men.

"Stories of the Spanish Artists, by Sir William Stirling-Maxwell," selected and arranged by Luis Carreño (Duffield), is a handsomely made book containing eight color prints and twenty-four halftone cuts. It was a good idea to reduce the charming but bulky chronicle to more practicable compass, and the work of the shears and pastepot has been done with discretion. Edward Hutton contributes a stimulating introduction on Spanish painting in general, and there are lists, by no means complete and up to date, of the paintings of the fourteen artists treated in the text. Readers

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should be warned not to trust these pages too credulously for facts. In the life of El Greco, for example, much that was doubtful or inferential in Sir Stirling Maxwell's time has become clear since Señor Cossio's standard biography. A little annotation on such material points would have increased the value of this welcome anthology.

Sir Francis Piggott's "Studies in the Decorative Art of Japan" (Yokohama: Kelly & Walsh) is unique in its field, being less cursory and fugitive in character and treatment than other attempts. The author, who is chief justice of Hongkong, has given considerable time to a first-hand study of his subject, and has, besides, a no small degree of artistic insight. The seven chapters of the book deal with: The Art of Temples, The Decoration of Flat Surfaces, The Wave and Cloud Forms, Lattice Work, The Decoration of the Japanese, The Use of the Circular Form, The Pakwa Diapers and the Key Borders. There are many apt and enlightening illustrations, finely executed, some in color and some in sepia. The impression created by lack of repetition and use of blank space in Japanese decorative art is carefully noted. The last chapter, on Pakwa Diapers and the Key Border, opposes the commonly accepted theory that these designs are a gift from Græco-Buddhist art that came East by way of India at the time of Alexander's conquests. Sir Francis Piggott shows that these forms are an evolution from a recognized religious symbol of the Orient, and that probably Greece borrowed from China. The fylfot, or rebated cross, is held to have been derived from the Pakwa, and may be regarded as representing the wheel of life. The style of the volume is itself artistic, and the book is, on the whole, pleasant reading.

A discovery of first-rate importance has been made in the neighborhood of Pompeii. Last year excavations on a farm close to the Porta Ercolese disclosed the remains of a magnificent mansion of more than twenty rooms. The work was resumed this season, the volcanic débris being removed to a sufficient depth to reveal the interior walls. These were found to be decorated with beautiful fresco paintings, many of which represent sculptural works, such as two Bacchantes in light drapery, Bacchus and Silenus attended by Satyrs, a priestess, and a dancing faun. Of great interest is a series of about nine scenes, which may reproduce either a continuous relief composition, such as those which occur on the Ara Pacis, or be taken from separate groups by various artists. One of the scenes shows a family of father, mother, and son, and an attendant bringing a patera to a priestess. Several scenes represent initiations by flagellation of female hierophants into the Dionysiac mysteries; the most striking is one of a woman, nude to the waist, stooping down with her head in the lap of a friend, ready to receive the stripes. Her companion places her hand caressingly on the victim's head, and watches the descending blow with terror in her face. Of great beauty is also a woman dancing with castanets, turning her back to the spectator. Finally there is a scene of the initiated, seated on a tripod, and arranging her hair, with Cupid holding up a mirror for her.

During some recent archæological researches near Alexandria, in Egypt, an interesting discovery was made. In the neighborhood of Kom-el-Chougafara a catacomb of Græco-Roman period was brought to light. The tomb is divided into three floors, and runs deep into the rock. The approach is by a winding staircase, which leads to a gallery, used probably in ceremonies in connection with the cult of the dead. From this, one passes to a triclinium, with tables and seats sculptured out of the rock. Three steps lead to the funeral chamber, elaborately carved with figures of the ancient gods of Egypt. The roof of this chamber is supported by a number of square columns, with lotus capitals. In a niche is placed a sarcophagus, ornamented with the head of an ox, and two Medusa heads, with floral festoons. Though the decorations throughout are copied from the Pharaonic period, it is evident from their style that they are not earlier than the third or fourth century A. D.

Finance.

RAILWAY RATES AND RAILWAY ECONOMIES.

When the Interstate Commerce Commission, a week ago last Monday, resumed its hearing at Washington on the proposed advance in railway freight rates, the case for the shippers was formally presented. In the preceding hearings, the railway counsel and the railway witnesses had in general contended that larger net revenue was imperative for three reasons—the first, that increased wages to railway employees had cut heavily into the former surplus earnings; the second, that present rates of dividends must be maintained, in order to preserve the companies' credit in borrowing on their bonds; the third, that in order to maintain proper facilities of transportation service, railways must have such annual surplus earnings and such credit in the market as shall provide the fund for improvements and extensions.

Counsel for the shippers' associations, in opening last week the case against the proposed advance in rates, raised two contentions. One was that even if larger revenue must be procured through higher rates, the proposed "horizontal advance" of rates on all commodities is unprecedented and, in its necessary consequences, unjust. The other, as outlined in the brief of counsel, was that, "even if the railroads need additional net income, it should be secured through greater efficiency and economy of operation, instead of resorting to the dangerous expedient of raising freight rates." The nature of the economies referred to in the second contention was thus described in the same brief:

> Besides economies from the introduction of scientific management, there are, as we shall show you, other economies possible in railroad operation attainable under the present system of management by the introduction of new devices, like the substitution of machines for hand labor. For instance, for comparatively small capital expenditure, large economies are believed to be possible through the use of appropriate machinery in the handling of freight in loading and unloading, warehousing and accounting, thus not only reducing the terminal expense, but overcoming the congestion of the terminals, a condition constituting one of the most serious transportation problems.

Witnesses were then put upon the stand to testify to the great reduction in operating costs which has been achieved in manufacturing plants through this scientific management, and, with somewhat more of reserve, opinions were drawn out to the effect that the railways have not kept abreast of the times in that direction. The reception of this argument, by the railway men in attendance at the Washington hearing, was interesting. The disposition was to treat the "scientific management" argument first as a joke and then as an impertinence. This attitude, however, was modified considerably when it was seen how seriously the argument was regarded by the newspapers and by the business community at large. The cross-examination by the railway lawyers began in a spirit of flippancy and ended in rather awkward silence.

As most people are aware, the chief counsel for the shippers is the same individual as conducted, two or three months ago, the case against Secretary Ballinger before the Senate committee. The merits of the railway contention and of the Ballinger contention are undoubtedly very different; but there exists an odd resemblance in the situation which the opposing counsel has created in both instances. On each occasion it had been more or less confidently assumed, by the party whose official position was under review, that the other side of the case was going by default, and the result, in the one inquiry as in the other, was an abrupt turn in the testimony which shifted the attitude of that party from aggressive to defensive. This was achieved, on each occasion, by evidence to show how the work of the department or institution under review could be made more useful and efficient. It is never wholly easy to combat such evidence, even when it operates against the contentions which one has supported; for the only obvious retort is either to say that methods already in operation are not capable of improvement, or else that one is not willing to try experiments in improving them. The first reply will never convince a practical and inquisitive American public; the second will simply throw up the case.

It may turn out that the argument for higher rates retains its force, notwithstanding this week's new testimony. But the inquiry brings up something more than a season's alteration in the rate sheet. Every one knows that the railways have made great strides, during

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the period since the insolvencies of the nineties, in cutting down cost of operation. No one, however, can feel sure in the bottom of his heart that all has been done that can be done. It must be frankly admitted that the public has not been favorably impressed, these past few years, by the public assertions of eminent railway men that much more remained to be accomplished to make the railways properly efficient servants of the public, but that no possible way existed for doing it. It was not, perhaps, said openly that this was a very un-American point of view, but a good many people thought so; and when, a few months later, on the announcement that a radical advance in rates would be obstructed pending inquiry, other railway officers burst into shrieks of anguish that the credit of their companies had been ruined, sensible people turned aside in deep disgust.

It has been said, and with perfect truth, that it is difficult to make American industry learn the lesson of rigid economy, except in the school of severe industrial depression. Prior to 1893, the country was proud enough of its steel-producing industry. It doubted if any plants more serviceable and efficient could be found on any other continent. When the prolonged depression of the nineties came, we made some very unpalatable discoveries, both as to existing methods of production and as to methods of financing. Some people in the industry hinted that government ought to help them. Some sat down and wrung their hands, announcing that the country was going to the dogs. There were, however, others of that sturdy American type which is keen for innovation, which believes that industrial obstacles were made to be surmounted by enterprise and invention, and which assailed the problem with a comprehensive vigor that let no consideration of the smallest sort escape it. The result we know. That was in 1894 and 1896, and by 1899 we were driving England and Germany from the neutral export fields, and European public men were warning the world against the American invasion.

The case of the railways is not in all respects identical; the nature of their industry brings some different aspects to the situation. But it cannot altogether be ignored, by observers with impartial minds, that the remedial measures which the shippers tentatively urge at Washington are precisely the measures, so far as concerns their general scope and character, which the iron and steel trade pressed relentlessly on that industry after 1893. As to whether all such processes of economy may not already have been adopted or applied by the railways, that is another question, regarding which the burden of proof will necessarily rest upon the railways. All one can say in passing is, that the decade which we are just completing has been a period which, in general, has encouraged not economy but waste, and that the occasional glimpses which the public has obtained of the inner workings of the machinery of some very great corporations, have certainly suggested the conclusion—just or unjust—that there were many methods and practices which would have to go, as soon as the railways felt the spur of real necessity.

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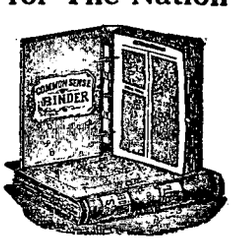

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